

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 5, 1882.

## The Week.

JUDGE COX had an opportunity last week to explain his peculiar manner of conducting the Guiteau trial, and his explanation was probably what most persons who have followed the proceedings with any care looked for. There was, it must be confessed, something absurd in having a solemn discussion as to the propriety of putting Guiteau in the dock. It seems to have been approached by counsel engaged in the case as if it involved grave constitutional questions, or as if the dock, instead of being the prisoner's regular place in court, were a relic of antique barbarism and cruelty, like the thumbscrew or the rack. Judge Cox, at the end of the argument, rendered his decision with the gravity of a final judgment, and no sooner was Guiteau placed in the dock than he began again to interrupt the proceedings. The reason why he exhibited so much fear of being removed from his seat inside the bar evidently was that he thought he might, if put in the dock, be shot. He was relieved of all anxiety on this score, however, by the judge, who assured him of protection. In deciding the motion, Judge Cox admitted the truth of all the criticisms made in the press on the subject of the conduct of the trial. The behavior of the prisoner had been from the first "in persistent violation of order and decorum." This had been allowed by the court, at the express desire of the District Attorney, "in order to furnish the experts an opportunity of diagnosing the prisoner's case," and on the ground that "the prisoner's conduct and language in court would afford the best indication of his mental and moral character, and contribute largely to the enlightenment of Court and jury on the question of his responsibility." This expectation had been justified by the result, for the opinions of the experts had been largely founded on the exhibitions which had taken place on the trial. The case was, however, now approaching its end, and it was incumbent on the Court to impose such restraint as the circumstances admitted. He could not be gagged or sent out of court, because this would interfere with his constitutional right to a fair trial, and so he must really now be placed in the dock.

It cannot be denied, scandalous as the trial has been, that there is a good deal in what Judge Cox says as to the effect produced by the spectacle afforded by Guiteau in court. The experts have had an opportunity of making up their minds upon the very important point as to whether he was acting a part; as to which, had he been kept under restraint, they would have been much in the dark. There was at the outset a suspicion in the minds of a good many people that the man was irresponsible, and nothing could possibly have removed all doubt on this head so completely as the course adopted by Judge Cox. On the other hand, Judge Cox by no means clears himself of the

charge of weakness. He has not only permitted the prisoner to exhibit himself in a true light to the jury and the witnesses, but he has allowed the audience a latitude that no judge with a proper sense of the dignity of his court would have countenanced. Whatever he might permit Guiteau to do, there was no reason why he should not have sternly repressed the misbehavior of the audience. Clearing the court-room once or twice would have brought them to their senses, but Judge Cox very early in the trial showed a disposition to make threats which he was not prepared to enforce, which is the surest invitation to disturbance. It was Judge Cox himself who made the suggestion that Guiteau should be gagged, and yet if he did at the outset determine to give him full swing, this must have been intended as a mere form of words.

We have heretofore commented upon Mr. Hewitt's bill providing for the free exchange of gold dollars for silver dollars at the Treasury, indicating that in our opinion it would be unwise to lodge in the hands of the Secretary the power to increase the present monthly rate of coinage of silver dollars, although this power, as proposed by Mr. Hewitt, is limited by the public demand for such dollars. Mr. Hewitt has replied that it was not his intention to add to the powers of the Secretary in this regard, unless there should be an actual demand, which is not likely to arise, seeing that the great bulk of coined silver lies inert in the Treasury. Obviously Mr. Hewitt's belief is that the discretionary power proposed to be given to the Secretary would lead to a cessation of such coinage for some time to come, which would of course be a gain to the taxpayers, who are now contributing two million dollars per month for the purchase of silver bullion not wanted for the purposes of trade. The question whether the producers of silver might not create an artificial demand for that kind of dollars, under the operation of the bill, in order to "steady the market" for silver, ought to be considered along with the question whether the Secretary will always properly construe his own powers and keep on the side of safety. Inasmuch as there is room for doubt upon both points, we think that the bill should be amended in this particular. Apart from this, it may be said in favor of Mr. Hewitt's bill that the position of the Government in respect of silver is now illogical and unjust. It buys silver bullion at the rate of, say, 87 cents per dollar, coins and issues it (so far as it is issued at all) at 100 cents, and pockets the difference, but refuses to give gold for it except in the indirect way of receiving silver for duties and taxes. This awkward and roundabout system grows out of an attempt to establish a double standard, and at the same time to guard against its evils. This is what the Allison bill avowedly sought to do. We have now reached a point where some further legislation is necessary, and we recognize in Mr. Hewitt's bill the purpose to accord something to the silver advocates and at the same time to exact something from

them in return. Probably any bill which has any chance of passing will have to be based upon a compromise of some kind.

A correspondent writing from Adeline, Illinois, sends us the following paragraph clipped from the editorial columns of the *Chicago Tribune*, and inquires whether the statements therein made are correct:

"The United States silver dollar being a legal-tender throughout this nation in the payment of all debts, and possessing exactly the same purchasing power as gold or greenbacks, it is received by European traders, manufacturers, and merchants on an equal footing with American gold. The only possible difference in value would be the extra cost over gold of sending it back to this country for the purchase of American products, and that would only amount to an insignificant fraction on the dollar. There is no other difference in Europe between the current value of legal-tender American gold and silver coin."

In the first place, the number of United States silver dollars in Europe is about the same as the number of English half-crowns in the United States—probably rather less. But if 1,000 silver dollars could be collected in Europe they would sell for as much as they would bring in New York minus the cost of handling, not because they are legal tender here, but simply and solely because the Government receives them for taxes and duties. The legal-tender property adds nothing to the value of silver except as it may be made to apply to debts previously contracted. In the making of new bargains and contracts and in the purchase of property from day to day, the legal-tender feature is not worth the smallest fraction of a penny. Whenever the amount of silver coined and got into circulation becomes sufficient to cause it to pass at its bullion value, gold will buy more property than silver, although both will be equally available to discharge old debts. But while the amount in circulation remains so small that the Government can take care of it and redeem it from day to day by receiving all that is offered at the custom-houses and internal-revenue offices, the silver dollar will buy as much here as a gold dollar, and will buy as much in Europe, minus the somewhat higher charges for brokerage and transportation. Therefore the *Chicago Tribune* is technically and in a narrow sense right, but by inference and suggestion altogether wrong.

The unprecedentedly heavy stream of immigration that poured into the country last year—over 430,000 arrivals in eleven months—seems to alarm timid citizens with serious apprehensions as to whether this mass of humanity, consisting of people wholly unacquainted with American life, can be safely absorbed by the body politic. It is true, the number of newcomers seems very large, almost sufficient to form three new States out of territory hitherto uninhabited, were the immigrants all to settle down together. But the effect produced by the sudden accession of a foreign element to our people depends in a great measure upon the proportion it bears to the general population and its dis-

tribution among the different parts of the country. From this point of view it appears that the heavy immigration of 1881 will not put our institutions under as severe a strain as they have been put before. We have now a population of over fifty millions, and the number of immigrants for the whole year will be about 440,000. In 1854 the population of the United States was about twenty-five millions, and the number of immigrants in that year was 319,223, a number more than two-thirds as large as that of the present time, while the aggregate population of the country was only half of what it now is. It is also reported that the majority of the immigrants who arrived last year were of an uncommonly good class, people of working habits and generally of some means. More than one-third of them were Germans, mostly belonging to the agricultural classes, who proverbially make good citizens and are easily assimilated. Immigrants from Great Britain, mostly Irishmen, come next, forming something less than one-third of the aggregate, a valuable addition to our working forces. Norway, Sweden, and Denmark furnish the next largest contingent, about one-eighth of the whole, and the rest is divided among other nationalities. The bulk of the immigration is going to the West. It is a fact worthy of note that the Northwestern States, which receive among their people the largest proportionate number of foreign immigrants, rank among the most orderly of American communities.

The *Mail and Express* published on Thursday a long reply to the charges of the *Times* with regard to the elevated-railroad management, consisting chiefly of opinions of counsel and decisions of the courts with reference to the consolidation of the roads and the operations which led to it. These documents go to establish the following facts: first, that the agreement between the Manhattan, the Metropolitan, and the New York, made in 1879, by which the first leased the other two and guaranteed ten per cent. dividends on their stock, was a valid contract; second, that the modification of it made in October last, by which this rental was cut down from ten per cent. to six, was also valid; third, that the directors had legal power to act for the companies in the matter; that the agreements needed no ratification by them; that the old ten per cent. guarantee cannot be enforced at the instance of individual stockholders who might have benefited by it, and that since the reduction the Manhattan Company is no longer insolvent.

The *Times* admits that all this is settled and out of the way, but insists that these matters are all irrelevant to its main charges, which it repeats, substantially, as follows: Gould, Field, and their associates entered into a stock-jobbing conspiracy to depress the elevated-railway shares and then buy them in and secure the control of the lines. At or not far from the same time the Attorney-General, Mr. Ward, set out with great zeal on behalf of the State to wind up the Manhattan Company, not merely on the ground of insolvency, but on that of a forfeit-

ure of all its rights and franchises before the ten per cent. agreement of 1879 was entered into. But "about the time that Jay Gould entered the management of the Metropolitan Company he abandoned his suit in this city and resorted to Judge Westbrook at Kingston with an amended complaint, alleging only the facts involving the insolvency of the company"—insolvency being a difficulty which could easily be got over by the means actually resorted to of cutting down the guaranteed rental. The company's affairs were put into the hands of receivers, the men selected being "closely associated in interest with the principal manipulators of elevated-railroad stocks." This of itself is a very grave charge against Mr. Ward, as he was bound to see that the receivers were disinterested persons. Having brought affairs to this point, his interest died out; and, his original suit being out of the way, there was nothing to prevent the consolidation from going on. With regard to Judge Westbrook the charge is that he made an order granting authority to issue certificates of indebtedness in Jay Gould's private office, and in the same office rendered a decision for the surrender of the property of the New York Company. The *Mail and Express*, in bringing forward its array of "highly esteemed judges" and "foremost jurists," does not, after all, touch the real point; no stock-jobbing conspiracy has ever been unearthed in this city without finding it backed up by the opinions of judges and jurists. As the *Times* says, they may amount to no more than proof that the conspiracy was successful. The question most important to the people is, Were the Attorney-General and a judge of the Supreme Court knowingly instrumental in forwarding it?

The explanation of Attorney-General Ward to a *Tribune* reporter of his course in connection with the elevated-railway litigation may be summed up as follows: He brought the action for insolvency against the Manhattan Company, before Judge Donohue, at the instance of the newspapers. Judge Brady stayed the proceedings, and the case got into such a tangle that he discontinued it and commenced a new action before Judge Westbrook at Kingston. The Manhattan Company denied its insolvency, and issue was joined. He (the Attorney-General) believed that the leases of the New York and Metropolitan Roads to the Manhattan were invalid, and so stated to the public. He also doubted the validity of the \$13,000,000 of Manhattan stock. When issue was joined on the question of insolvency he was ill and could not attend court; so he telegraphed to Judge Westbrook to do what he thought was right. The Judge, with the consent of all the parties, discharged the receivers and restored the property to the Manhattan Company. He (the Attorney-General) never had any interest in elevated-railway stock and never received any consideration for anything he did in the premises. The gist of the charge in the *Times* against Attorney-General Ward is that he used his official position to help Jay Gould in a vile stock speculation. It was important for Gould that the Manhattan stock should be depressed to a low figure, but that the company

should not be destroyed. The action by the Attorney-General, as things went on, was adequate to accomplish both these ends. It was important that the litigation should not be unduly protracted. The discontinuance of the first suit and the beginning of the second one before Judge Westbrook were adequate to push matters forward rapidly. It was important that the owners of the New York and Metropolitan Railways should be frightened so as to consent to the execution of new leases at a reduced rental. The statement of the Attorney-General that he doubted the validity of the old leases and consideration of those leases—viz., the \$13,000,000 of Manhattan stock—was well calculated to produce fright among those who had received the stock and sold it, and might be required to account for it to the Manhattan Company. The discontinuance of the suit when the necessary effect had been produced upon the New York and Metropolitan stockholders was the only remaining act needed to carry out Gould's programme. Now, nobody can probably affirm that Attorney-General Ward received any consideration for his agency in the proceedings, but the general verdict will be that such greenness as he displayed according to his own showing is exceedingly dangerous to the public when united with power and responsibility.

The hasty assertion made in some quarters that the Star-route prosecutions died with the late President is effectually contradicted by the spirited letter of Attorney-General Brewster to associate-counsel Bliss. The Attorney-General says that as soon as he assumes the duties of his department he will give the counsel special authority to push the civil suits for the stolen money, and that "the uttermost penny lawlessly received and taken from the public treasury must be recovered." He further insists that the criminal proceedings "be earnestly pressed." Mr. Brewster, however, is not content to turn the matter over to the special counsel employed by the Government. "I have," he says, "resolved that my duty will require me to take active part in the trials in court," and he promises to be present as the leader of the prosecution. Whatever hope the Star-route rascals have founded upon the supposed indifference of the Administration must be dispelled by the Attorney-General's emphatic letter.

General Grant has made a very frank and very complete recantation of his views on Fitz-John Porter's case, owing to his having gone over it again with the fresh light derived from the Confederate orders and reports. He thinks that, had "the testimony and documents now available been brought before the court-martial, there would have been no verdict against General Porter." This is very creditable to him; and as there is no politics in the matter, nobody will question the sincerity of his conversion. We may add that we believe his experience is that of every disinterested person who has gone over the ground recently. It was that of Mr. Joseph H. Choate, who appeared without fee, and as a consequence of his change of opinion, as counsel for

General Porter before the late Advisory Board. It has been our own experience, also. Porter has for nineteen years been lying under a tremendous penalty, inflicted after a conviction which, however justifiable at the time, is now shown to be untenable, and the country owes it to its own honor to relieve him. But all this does not solve the problem of poor General Logan's condition. He is the head and front of the great anti-Porter phalanx. He knows, and has always known, that Porter was guilty. He feels it in his bones and his moustache. Now, however, his idolized chief, General Grant, has gone back on him, and says Porter is innocent. Who will mourn for Logan now? What will he do? Whither will he turn?

The discussion in the press on the proposed Tariff Commission shows that the subject has really taken a strong hold upon the public mind. The point in controversy at present is whether the commission shall be composed of Congressmen or of persons outside of Congress. The high-tariff men generally favor an outside commission because they could more easily pack it and conceal any evidence tending to discredit the present outrageous scale of duties on imports. The principal objection to an outside commission is that the work to be done has to be passed upon, in order to acquire any validity as law, by another and different body of men, that is, by Congress, and thus virtually will require to be done twice. The conclusion reached by the commission must be reviewed first by committees of the two houses, and afterward by the houses themselves. It will be practically impossible for the committees to examine all the evidence taken by the commission, and if it were possible, it would still be open to question whether all the evidence which the committees themselves would have taken was gathered in. In the discussion which the report must undergo on the floor of the two houses, the members of the commission can take no part if they are not also members of Congress. Consequently there will be much groping in the dark when unexpected questions are put by members in debate to those who have the measure in charge. Moreover, an outside commission would be an irresponsible body, having no constituency to pass effective judgment upon their doings. The public will be better assured of the fairness of the report if they know that its members have to meet their fellow-citizens at the hustings within a brief period of time, and give an account of themselves. We can conceive of no method of dealing with the tariff so poorly calculated to satisfy public opinion, so awkward and dilatory, and so unlikely to lead to a permanent adjustment, as to send the subject to an outside commission.

Early in the last week there was a sharp recovery in prices at the Stock Exchange, but on the closing day of the year depression again became the rule and has since continued to be. The particular reason for the decline in prices is that the railroad war has broken out afresh—in other words, that business is

being solicited and taken by the trunk railroads at prices which do not cover the cost of the work done. During the close of navigation the railroads usually earn a good part of their yearly profits, and the present contest is therefore the more serious, since every month of delay in settling it before navigation re-opens shortens by so much the most profitable season of the year. There was a sharp demand for money throughout the week, yet the New York banks lost but little in their surplus reserve, and the money market has ceased to be a matter of concern for several months, as all domestic influences will now work in favor of lower rates. Foreign exchange advanced during the week, so that at the close there was no profit in importing gold.

There has been a large meeting of Irish landlords in Dublin, at which resolutions were passed expressive of the alarm and disappointment with which they view the proceedings of the Land Commission, hinting that the antecedents of some of the commissioners disqualify them for their work, and demanding that if their decisions are confirmed on appeal, Parliament should compensate the landowners for their loss. There is little likelihood that this complaint will produce much effect on English opinion. It is in substance a complaint that the act is producing the effects it was intended to produce. It was passed simply and solely because rents in Ireland were believed to be too high, and the payment of them was enforced by means which were held to be cruel and unjustifiable. The evidence on these points was overwhelming. What the commissioners have done in a large number of cases is to lower rents, and in lowering rents they have simply taken away from bad landlords money to which, in the estimation of the framers of the bill, they had no claim. It would, therefore, be an absurdity on its face to call on English taxpayers to make up to such landlords what they have lost through the operation of the law. Outrages on a large scale continue, but the judges declare that they seem in very few cases to be the work of the farming class. They will probably disappear as the discontent of the farmers disappears. That the Land Act is going to prove successful in removing this discontent there is daily less reason to doubt.

The budget of the German Empire for 1882-3, which has recently been prepared, presents some features that are worthy of notice, because they bring out in strong relief the weakness of the present system of imperial finance, and give the real cause of the recent changes made in the system by Prince Bismarck. However much his protective measures and his agitation for a tobacco monopoly and taxes on spirits may militate against sound political economy, circumstances demand that something be done to create a steady revenue. According to the budget, the ordinary expenditures will amount to 534,140,792 marks, and the extraordinary expenditures to 73,393,979 marks, or a total of 607,534,771 marks. The income is estimated at 607,534,771 marks. The budget, which is voted annually, when closed is always found to be in equilibrium, the revenue being equal to the expenditure. This result cannot be readily understood with-

out explaining the general outlines of the financial system of the empire. The resources of the empire are derived from customs duties and excises, railroads, posts and telegraphs, the public property, and the treasure made up of the French war indemnity. These are the chief sources of revenue, but the sums thus obtained, together with other numerous small items of revenue, are insufficient to defray the necessary expenditure of the empire for the central administration, army and navy, courts of justice, and foreign office, and the deficit is a large and increasing one. This deficit is covered by contributions which are apportioned among the States according to their population, some allowances being made for the privileges they enjoy. Thus the contribution is relatively larger for Bavaria, Baden, Würtemberg, and Alsace-Lorraine, because they are allowed to impose taxes for their own account on malt and spirits. The sum of the contributions is then the deficit between revenue and expenditure. This deficit, which was in 1872 81,327,265 marks, in 1881 had increased to 103,684,389 marks, and in 1882 to 116,062,748 marks, being an increase of more than 12,000,000 marks in a single year. Of this large sum more than 85,000,000 marks are to be redistributed among the individual States, so that the real contribution amounts to but 30,000,000.

So long as the war indemnity could be drawn upon, the extraordinary expenditures were paid from it, and the contributions of the States were so small as to create but little discontent among the States. But as the war fund has been exhausted, and the deficits to be covered have increased, the contributions bear more heavily upon the smaller and poorer States, many of which are unable even to pay the expenses of their own administration, and the difficulty of meeting them is increasing. The income of the individual States is derived from lands, forests, and such mining and manufacturing operations as they conduct. This is, at best, an uncertain revenue; for while the lands and forests afford a nearly fixed income, the manufactures carried on by the State are not exempt from the vicissitudes of trade, and the revenue from this source is liable to be greatly decreased in years of depression. The same objection will also in great part apply to the mines, so that while the calls made upon the States are rapidly increasing, there is no corresponding increase in the means of meeting them, and there is the constant danger of a diminishing income. The complaints and discontent among the States against the present system are growing more bitter each year, and some reform by which they may be relieved of these contributions is loudly called for. It is true that the Chancellor is allowed to borrow funds to cover whatever deficit may occur in the budget, but this power has been but little used. In order to allay this discontent Prince Bismarck has been casting round for some new sources of revenue which may allow him to decrease the calls upon the States, and his protectionist tariff is a part of this plan. His measures for a Government monopoly on tobacco, such as exists in France, and for imperial excises on liquors, are only means for attaining this end.

## SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

## DOMESTIC.

ADDITIONAL interest was lent to the proceedings in the Guiteau trial on Wednesday. During the cross-examination by Mr. Scoville of one of the witnesses for the prosecution, Judge Porter objected to one of the questions as being "blasphemous," whereupon Guiteau began to abuse Mr. Porter in a most violent manner. The latter then demanded that the Court remand the prisoner to the dock. After some argument the motion was granted, and Guiteau, considerably cowed, was removed to the dock. In rendering his decision, Judge Cox took occasion to say a few words in explanation of the course which the Court had pursued with regard to the prisoner's conduct during the trial. He stated, among other things, that Guiteau had been allowed considerable latitude, in accordance with the expressed wish of the District Attorney, so that the experts might be able to observe his conduct. Two more experts were called to the witness stand on this day—Drs. A. E. Macdonald, of New York, and Randolph Barksdale, of Virginia—both of whom expressed the belief that Guiteau is sane now, and was sane on the 2d of July. On Thursday Dr. Walter Kempster, of Wisconsin, was the most important witness. He has made a specialty of craniology and has had considerable experience with insane criminals. Dr. Kempster did not think that Guiteau's head was of an unusual shape, and illustrated this point by card-cuttings showing the shape of the heads of various well-known men, including District Attorney Corkhill, whose head is said somewhat to resemble Guiteau's in shape. Dr. Kempster further said that he thought the prisoner was feigning insanity. On Friday morning, as Guiteau was being taken across the court-room to the dock, he said to Mr. Scoville and Mr. Reed, as he passed them, "If you will just keep quiet, I'll laugh this case out of court." He proceeded to carry this project into effect by making more of a buffoon of himself than usual. Dr. John P. Gray, the last expert witness for the prosecution, was examined on Friday. Dr. Gray had had interviews with Guiteau before the beginning of the trial, in one of which the latter had said that had the Paris consulate been given him it would have prevented him from "removing" the President. At the close of this day's proceedings Dr. Gray emphatically stated that the result of his interview with Guiteau had been to convince him of the prisoner's sanity. On Saturday Dr. Gray continued his testimony and gave his reasons for considering the prisoner sane, which were in brief that he had found nothing in the story of his former life to show that he had ever had any symptoms of insanity, and that his account of the assassination showed reason, judgment, reflection, self-control, fear for personal safety, and preparation of a legal defence before the commission of the crime. These things were, according to Dr. Gray's experience, entirely inconsistent with a delusion of a divine command to commit homicide. Mr. Scoville's cross-examination of Dr. Gray, which was continued on Tuesday, resulted in nothing of importance to the defence. On Friday Mr. Scoville gave notice of an application for the introduction of new evidence for the defence. The remanding of Guiteau to the dock seems to have had little effect upon him. He has been as noisy and abusive as ever.

Guiteau was allowed to see about 200 callers on Monday, who were permitted to go as far as the door of his cell. Many of them are said to have been women.

Mr. Solomon, chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means of the Garfield Memorial Hospital, says that the subscriptions to the institution now amount to about \$80,000, but that, as it is deemed desirable to make the hospital independent, if possible, of Congressional appropriation, a much larger fund will be necessary.

The committee of the Garfield Memorial Hospital have received \$400 from the Khedive of Egypt, through Consul-General Wolf, who writes that he expects to supplement this with further subscriptions to the amount of \$1,000.

The total amount raised for the endowment of a Garfield professorship in Williams College is reported to be about \$35,000. It is expected that \$15,000 more will be raised.

Senator Hoar of Massachusetts delivered an oration on President Garfield, before the City Council, in Mechanics' Hall, Worcester, on Friday. There was a large audience present, including Governor Long, Chief Justice Gray, and Justice Devens.

In order to correct certain misstatements which have been made concerning the relations between the President and Mr. Blaine, a statement has been furnished for publication which asserts that there has never been the slightest misunderstanding between the President and Mr. Blaine in regard to the latter's retirement from the Cabinet, and that their personal relations continue, as they have always been, entirely friendly and cordial.

Postmaster-General James expects to surrender his department to his successor on Thursday next, on which day he will have been ten months in charge.

From the returns made to Third Assistant Postmaster-General Hazen, it appears that the sale of postage stamps, stamped envelopes, and postal cards for the quarter ending September 30, 1881, amounted to \$7,017,788.88, an increase of \$1,030,109 over the corresponding period of last year.

A letter has been published from Attorney-General Brewster to Mr. George Bliss in regard to the Star-route prosecution. Mr. Brewster says that the civil as well as the criminal prosecutions must be "earnestly pressed," and "the uttermost penny lawlessly received and taken from the public treasury must be recovered." Mr. Brewster also says that he is convinced that his duty will require him to take an active part in the trials in court, and that he proposes to be present with Mr. Bliss "and in person lead in the prosecution for the United States."

Mr. Bliss sent out on Saturday seventy subpoenas for witnesses to appear before the Grand Jury in the Star-route cases, which will soon be brought up. Mr. Bliss is reported to have said that Brady and Dorsey will surely be indicted.

The Post-office Department is reported to be "waging a war" against the Mormons. The department having found that the Mormons in the territory of Utah were "boycotting" such postmasters as were not of the Mormon religion by buying postage stamps, etc., only from Mormon postmasters, have removed Democratic and Mormon postmasters and substituted anti-Mormon Republicans in their place. In most of the post-offices in Utah the compensation of the postmaster is derived from his commission on the sale of his stamps.

It is stated to be the general sentiment of the House Committee on Elections, in regard to the Cameron-Campbell case from Utah, that neither of them is entitled to a seat. It is thought that the whole matter will be referred back to the people of Utah for a new election.

The debt statement for the month of December, issued on Tuesday, shows the decrease of the public debt during the month to have been \$12,793,623.56.

The annual estimate by the Director of the Mint of the values of foreign coins for 1882 makes only two changes from the estimated values of last year. The Austrian florin and the Japanese yen are each reduced one mill.

Some 440,000 emigrants arrived in this country during the past year. Of these three-fourths were landed at Castle Garden, New York.

The growth of the State of Colorado during

the past year is said to have been unprecedented in its history. The Auditor's records show the assessed valuation of the State to be \$96,050,000, an increase of \$23,000,000 over that of 1880. The total indebtedness of the State is \$330,000.

The Atlanta Cotton Exposition was closed with appropriate ceremonies on Saturday. An immense throng was present. Director-General Kimball and Governor Colquitt, President of the Exposition, delivered addresses, after which the machinery was stopped and the Exposition declared at an end.

There was a disastrous fire in a crowded hall at Shanesville, Ohio, on Monday night. It is said that the total number of killed and wounded will probably reach 100. The building was a rickety frame structure, and has long been considered unsafe.

The annual message of Governor Cornell, of New York, which is ready for the Legislature, treats solely of State matters, and announces that there is a surplus of \$2,500,000 in the State's treasury. This, which is said to be the largest surplus there has ever been in the treasury, it is expected will enable a reduction in the State taxation to the lowest rate in fifty years.

There is a "deadlock" in the New York State Legislature. The Tammany members of the Democratic party refuse to support the nominees of the regular Democratic caucuses, and the result is that it has been impossible to elect any officers or to transact any business.

The Virginia House of Delegates recently passed a bill removing from about forty persons the political disabilities which had been incurred in consequence of duelling contrary to the State law. A systematic movement is now being set on foot by the ministers of the State to defeat the bill in the Senate.

Mr. William G. Russell, who was appointed by Governor Long to the Chief Justiceship of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, made vacant by the appointment of Mr. Gray to the Supreme Court of the United States, has declined the appointment.

There is a dispute between the Choctaw and Chickasaw Indian nations in regard to the right of way recently granted by the Choctaw Council to the St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad Company through the Choctaw country. Ex-Governor Overton appeared before the Secretary of the Interior on Tuesday, as the representative of the Chickasaw nation, to protest against the ratification of the grant, on the ground that the Chickasaws had an interest in the Territory and had not been consulted in the matter. It has been asserted that the Choctaw Council was "bought up," the majority of the nation being opposed to the railroad.

There has been an alarming increase in smallpox cases in all sections of the country. The Post-office Department has been appealed to by postmasters in several States, especially in New York, to adopt some method of protecting them from infected mail matter, even to the extent of stopping the mails altogether, if other means fail. It is stated that the postal authorities are considering the matter, with a view to taking such measures as may be feasible.

The deaths from smallpox during the week ending Saturday, the 24th of December, are officially reported to the National Board of Health to have been as follows: At Pittsburg, 25; Cincinnati, 14; New York, 11; Philadelphia, 11; Madison, Indiana, 1. On Thursday seventy-seven cases of smallpox were reported to have occurred in the infected region below Wahpeton, Dakota, twenty-five of which proved fatal. The disease is said to be spreading in that region.

It is reported that the court-martial in the case of the cadet Whittaker have found him guilty of cutting his own ears, and have sentenced him to be dishonorably dismissed from the service. It is also rumored that Judge-Advocate-General Swaim has reviewed the

proceedings of the court, and has decided that it was illegally constituted because it was ordered by President Hayes without any request from the department commander, and that therefore all the proceedings were void. Although no official statements in regard to the matter have as yet been made, there seem to be good reasons for believing the above to be true.

The ceremonies accompanying the retirement of the old and the reception of the new Chinese Minister took place at Washington on Saturday. The new Minister, Cheng Tsao Ju, was presented to the President by Mr. Frelinghuysen, and the customary addresses were made.

Señor Martinez, the Chilean Minister at Washington, has received a despatch from the Chilean Government, stating that a manifesto has been issued to all the powers with whom Chili is represented by an envoy, giving the reasons on account of which Chili went to war with Peru, and defining the Chilean policy in regard to the present difficulties. The arrival of the manifesto is awaited with interest.

Mr. James Stevenson, who has been in charge of the Archaeological and Ethnological Exploration among the aboriginal towns of the Southwest, has, in a conversation with a reporter of the New York *Tribune*, given a very interesting account of the result of his labors. These have been mainly among the Pueblo Indians in New Mexico and Arizona. He explored a number of ruined towns built by the old cliff-dwellers, one of which, he says, must have been the abode of 100,000 souls, and which these explorations are believed to have first brought to the knowledge of the civilized world. The dwellings in the city are carved out of the rocks for sixty miles along the face of a winding cliff, and many interesting relics, such as pottery and the like, were collected therefrom. These researches have been conducted under the auspices of the Smithsonian Institution, and Mr. Stevenson's collection, comprising eight or nine thousand articles, is on the way to Washington.

#### FOREIGN.

In receiving the congratulations of the Senators and the members of the Chamber of Deputies on New Year's Day, King Humbert said, among other matters, that it was well to make known that Italy was firmly decided not to admit the slightest discussion on the part of foreign governments of certain questions touching internal order. This is supposed to have been an allusion to Prince Bismarck's designs in behalf of the Vatican. King Humbert also dwelt upon the necessity of completing the military organization. The King's words are reported to have "produced a great impression."

In replying to a question in the Spanish Cortes as to whether in case of a "powerful nation" undertaking to protect the rights of the Pope in Rome, the Spanish Government would interfere, Señor Armijo, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, said that as far as he was aware no power contemplated taking the rights of the Pope under its special protection.

It is stated that, notwithstanding the rumors which have been circulated of late, the Pope has no thought of leaving the Vatican.

Arabi Bey, the leader of the national party in Egypt, has written a long letter to the London *Times* setting forth the aims of the party. He says it is loyal to the Sultan and the Khedive, but is determined to oppose any attempt on the part of either to assume despotic authority. It hopes to redeem the country from the hands of its creditors, and desires the army to be strengthened so as to protect the Assembly in obtaining a fair measure of popular rights.

It is stated that France and England have agreed to send to the Khedive of Egypt an identical note, announcing that, in the event of peace being disturbed or his authority overthrown, they are prepared effectively to "sup-

port him, restore order, and protect his authority by material co-operation."

It is stated that the British Government has opened negotiations with France, Germany, and America, with a view to establishing an international court to deal with outrages connected with the kidnapping of natives of the South Pacific.

It is stated from Parisian sources that the Anglo-French treaty negotiations are virtually ended, owing to the refusal of the English commissioners to accept the concession made by the French commissioners in regard to cotton and woollen goods. This concession did not reach the minimum fixed by the English. A despatch to the London *Times*, however, states that the situation is slightly improved and a definite arrangement quite possible.

Affairs in Tunis seem to be becoming comparatively peaceful. A despatch states that a majority of the Hammema tribe, numbering 2,300 tents, were expected at Gafsa on the 27th inst., to make submission, and that the rest of the tribe were also disposed to submit. If this be true, the insurrection in the south of Tunis will be practically at an end.

M. Roustan, the French Minister, returned to Tunis on Sunday. He was met by a few French residents and natives, but no great demonstration was made.

French troops have entered Figuig, Morocco, and fighting has ensued between them and tribes within the frontier.

The French Government has issued a decree abolishing the post of Directeur des Cultes at the Ministry of Worship. This department is to be entirely reorganized, and an examination is to be made of the modification of the decree and laws affecting the State churches. It is understood that no new bishop will be appointed without taking the oath prescribed by the convention between France and the Vatican.

A meeting of delegates from the Department of the Seine for the election of Senators, was held in Paris on Thursday. Victor Hugo is among the candidates for the Senatorship.

The Irish Property Defence Association is constantly receiving recruits. On Dec. 28 an influential meeting of the landowners and traders of the city and county of Dublin was held and a branch of the association formed. The Lord Mayor of London is reported to be energetically advocating the fund for the defence of property in Ireland, which has now reached the sum of £9,000. On Thursday the police entered the shops of all the news agents in Dublin who are engaged in the sale of seditious journals, and seized all the copies of the *United Ireland*, *Irish World*, and *United Irishman*. The organization of eleven of the worst counties into five districts, each under the supervision of a special magistrate, is looked upon as an indication that the Government has resolved to take still more vigorous measures for the suppression of the disorders. A meeting of the Ladies' Land League was held in Dublin on the 1st of January, at which Miss Anna Parnell presided. The police did not interfere. The Dublin correspondent of the London *Times*, in reviewing the events of the past year in Ireland, draws a very dark picture. He says that commercial credit is broken and the spirit of the country sunk in deep depression. The result of the year's trade shows a decrease of thirty per cent. in imports.

Mr. Dawson was formally inaugurated Lord Mayor of Dublin on Monday. The Corporation refused to pass the customary vote of thanks to the retiring Mayor, Mr. Moyers, in consequence of his refusal to convene a special meeting of the Corporation to confer the freedom of the city on Messrs. Parnell and Dillon.

The London *Times* of December 31, in a financial article reviewing the state of British trade during the past year, says that "the year has been marked by a quiet but steady im-

provement in trade"; that pauperism is diminishing and the revenue from deposits in savings banks increasing, and that the outlook, on the whole, for the new year is reassuring.

The English Foreign Office has published Mr. Blaine's despatch of November 14th to Minister Lowell, thanking the British people for their sympathy with Mrs. Garfield and her family.

It is understood that Mr. Bradlaugh will appear before the bar of the House of Commons and make claim to have the oath administered to him on the day on which Parliament reassembles.

The total amount of the subscription obtained in London in aid of the sufferers by the Vienna fire exceeded £100,000.

The Allan Line steamship *Moraria*, from Portland, bound for Liverpool, England, ran ashore near Yarmouth, Nova Scotia, on Friday. The cargo, consisting mainly of wheat and flour, was thrown overboard, and the passengers taken ashore, but it was found impossible to get her afloat. It is stated that there is little hope of saving the vessel, as she fills with each tide.

The Hamburg-American Line steamer *Gelert*, which sailed from New York on the 15th of December for Hamburg, ran ashore on Wednesday during a fog, near Cuxhaven, on the bank of the Elbe, fifty-six miles from Hamburg.

Since the Anti-Socialist Law was promulgated in Germany, 225 Socialist societies have been dissolved, and 758 Socialist publications suppressed.

It is stated that Herr Richter will soon resign the leadership of the Progressists in the Reichstag, and that Herr Hanel will succeed him.

The trial trip through the St. Gothard Tunnel was made on Thursday. It is said to have been highly successful. The time occupied in the passage of the train was forty minutes one way and thirty-three minutes the other.

Despatches from St. Petersburg announce that great frauds, amounting to millions of rubles, have been discovered at the custom-house at Taganrog, and all the officials arrested.

The total number of arrests of persons engaged in the recent riots at Warsaw is 1,700. It is stated that the prisoners are mostly young men.

A committee, consisting of Sergeant Simon, Baron Nathaniel de Rothschild, and Messrs. Cohen and Worth, in London, is collecting information with regard to the persecution of the Jews in Russia and Poland.

A Madrid despatch announces that the conversion of the privileged debts into four per cents has succeeded beyond all expectation. About £53,000,000 of the nominal capital of the debt has been converted.

King Luis of Portugal opened the Portuguese Cortes on Monday.

Complaint is being made in Portugal in regard to the treatment in the Sandwich Islands of emigrants from the Azores. The press in Lisbon has called upon the Government to take some steps in the matter.

The elections in Greece have been held. The returns are as yet incomplete, but so far they are unfavorable to the Government. The Ministers of Marine and Finance have lost their seats.

It is said that Señor Matias Romero has been appointed Mexican Minister to Washington.

The latest despatches from South America announce that when the news of the departure of Messrs. Trescott and Blaine, on a special mission to Chili and Peru, was received it caused a decided improvement in the markets.

## FRENCH STOCK SPECULATION.

It is impossible to judge, until a full report of the recent libel suit of M. Roustan against the *Intransigeant* has been received, to what extent, if any, the jury were influenced by political considerations in finding for Rochefort, the defendant. The salient facts in support of the charge that Roustan's operations against the Bey were part of a gigantic stock speculation are, that his character does not seem to have stood very high at Tunis, and that the price of Tunisian bonds rose greatly at Paris just after the Bardo treaty, and next after the commencement of active military operations; further, that the original quarrel with the Bey was a dispute about the possession of a farm claimed by a French company against an English Jew, and that Roustan had long been an active dispenser of concessions from the Tunisian Government to French speculators. Moreover, an appearance of bad faith and of the existence of something that had to be concealed was created from the very first by the campaign against the Kroumirs, which everybody saw was a sham in the first fortnight. This was enough to cast discredit on the whole enterprise. The *Temps*, which is now a semi-official organ of the Gambetta Ministry, has admitted frankly that the Kroumirs were phantoms, but justifies the use of them, on the ground that there were serious diplomatic objections to saying, at the outset, that the real cause of the attack on the Bey's sovereignty was the desire to put an end at once to Italian pretensions to influence over him. Of course, a Government which confesses that it went to war on a fraudulent pretext, must expect to have its honesty impugned at every stage of the enterprise of which the war was the beginning. It is true that Gambetta was not in office when the war began, but he approved of it, and since coming into office has adopted all the methods and agents of his predecessors. Moreover, the Jules Ferry Ministry made no secret of the fact that the subjugation of Tunis was to open a rich field to French capital.

What makes the verdict of the jury appear a serious blow for Gambetta is, however, probably not so much anything positively criminal which has been brought out at the trial, as the formal confirmation it seems to give, in a country in which judicial findings have great moral weight, to the theory which all the opponents of the Republic have been vigorously preaching, that the Republican régime is essentially a corrupt, stock-jobbing régime. Ever since the Monarchs had to cease denying its power and permanence, they have taken to accusing it of dishonesty in money matters, and the charge has derived a certain plausibility in French eyes from the fact that the present Government is, to a greater extent than any other which has preceded it since the Revolution, a government of poor men who have their fortunes to make, and men unknown to "Society," and whom Society thinks ready to steal whenever they get a chance.

It is not this, however, which makes a Parisian bourgeois jury ready to believe evil of

the men now in power, so much as the enormous extent to which the French people is now plunged in stock speculation. Nothing like it has hitherto been known in French history, and one consequence of this is undoubtedly a readiness on the part of the ordinary Frenchman to believe that everybody, high and low, official and non-official, is in pursuit of things which have "money in them." A writer of high authority in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* asserts that it is not only the failure of the vine and the olive which has lowered the value of land, and thrown much of it out of cultivation, and made it very difficult to rent on any terms in central and southern France, but the rage of the peasantry for stocks, and the town life which seems to be a necessary accompaniment of stock speculation. In fact, it has now gone so far as to have greatly weakened if not destroyed, over a large part of France, the old "earth hunger" which has been so long one of the most powerful agents in French history, and did so much to ensure the success of the Revolution. The peasant has, in short, begun to prefer to have his money in scrip, or rentes, to having it in land, and to prefer the chance of increasing his store by lucky turns on the exchange to the chance of increasing it by that painful industry of the spade, for which he has long been famous.

To meet this demand for stocks, the railroads and "governments" by no means suffice as they do with us, great speculators as we deem ourselves. There is now in France a great swarm of banking companies, or "crédits," as they are called, in whose shares thousands of small people deal without knowing anything of their business. But the greatest material for speculation is afforded by the "Crédits-Fonciers," of which there is another and larger swarm, with much greater command of capital. These are in reality what we call "Construction Companies," of which our famous Crédit-Mobilier was a pretty example. Their proper business, theoretically, is some kind of speculation in real estate, as their name implies. They are ready to dig canals, make railroads, open streets or tunnels, build houses or stores, sell lots, and carry on farms, or vineyards, or sugar plantations. Nothing comes amiss to them, in fact, and their operations reach all over France and Algeria. They will soon be in operation in Tunis, but they rarely venture from under the French flag, owing to some remains of the timidity which has for nearly two centuries stopped French colonization. Their shares are small in amount, and thus within everybody's reach, and with this great variety in the nature, extent, and profitableness of their undertakings there is of course room for numerous and heavy fluctuations in their Bourse value.

How managers are provided for organizations requiring such a great diversity of talent and capacity, and how frauds and malversation both small and great are prevented, we are unable to say, and for our present purpose is of no consequence. It is enough that no gross mismanagement has yet been revealed, and that the companies still command the confidence of the small investors and speculators; and it is highly probable that they exerted con-

siderable influence in precipitating the Tunisian crisis in order to provide themselves with new fields. The real danger of Gambetta's Ministry on the financial side probably lies not so much in popular suspicion that its members are making money through their use of power, as in the liability of the bubble to burst while he is in power. If he could support the collapse of speculation which his Government might be fairly accused of fostering, it would show that he was the strongest ruler France has ever had, for the resulting ruin would be felt over a wider area than any similar preceding calamity. Most "crashes" touch only the well-to-do; a French crash just now would reach the "chaumières," in which every French Government has to keep content alive as a condition of existence.

## OUR "PROTECTED" FORESTS.

AMONG the most interesting of the points which require attention in the impending revision of the tariff is that relating to lumber. Here the principle of protection has received a very whimsical application, and one decidedly hostile to the public advantage which protection is supposed to subserve, whether we view it as assisting the accumulation of raw material for our manufacturers and builders, or as protecting the process of its manufacture by them. The production of new stores of this raw material is very slow at the best, and yet it is of the utmost importance to both our builders and manufacturers that the required supply should be ample and of moderate cost. It is no less important that the indirect benefit of our forest growth to agriculture should be considered. The necessity of an abundant timber supply to our carpenters every one can see at a glance. It will be very hard for us in a thousand ways to have the supply of black walnut, for instance, give out as that of tulip wood and ebony has done. But the loss of the forest to the farmer, though not so plain at first glance, is no less real. Scientific men agree with great unanimity that the preservation of extensive forests is vital to the prosperity of a large part of the country. Our climate is naturally drier than that of Europe, and vast tracts of our Western territory are particularly exposed to prolonged droughts and devastating gales. The whole great region extending from the valley of the Missouri to the Rocky Mountains is very generally of this character. There the wind acquires enormous force in its unobstructed sweep over hundreds of miles of prairie, and no mountains intervene to break its force or arrest the travelling rain clouds. Every season we are appalled by accounts of calamitous gales and irresistible tornadoes. The rainfall, too, diminishes markedly to the west of the Missouri, and when the needed showers come they fall too often upon parched and unretentive ground. From this they roll off in sheets to the stream channels, through which they rush in appalling floods. Drought is a frightful foe to the farmers of the far West. For several years they have escaped it, but three times in the last decade the crop has failed from this cause over whole States. More than once the rich bottom lands have been rendered tillable from floods.

These bad Western crops were felt heavily in the East, in the shape of diminished demand for goods, and bad debts. The East cannot flourish while the West suffers; for there is produced the food that feeds the nation and preserves the balance of our European trade, and there is consumed the product of the Eastern mills. Moreover, the prosperity of the West is an agricultural prosperity directly connected with its forest growth, for one of the few means of moderating these violent excesses and keeping up the even distribution of the necessary moisture by forests. Indeed, that and the altered character of the surface, produced by cultivation, by which the soil becomes more porous and receptive of moisture, as well as more regularly drained, seem the only methods of producing any effect in the desired direction. The thrifty Western farmer has taught himself without books the value of the little grove on the windward side of his dwelling, and the benefits to be expected from a better system of arboriculture are so widely recognized that many States offer tax abatements to those who set out trees.

In direct opposition to that wise policy, our national Government puts a premium on the destruction of our forests by its tax on Canadian and other imported lumber, and under this extraordinary legislation our forests are rapidly falling. It is estimated by the Government that the once superb forests of Minnesota will be exhausted in a dozen years, and that the Florida supply will not last more than thirty. In California the destruction of the trees has been so reckless that over great tracts of land the soil, stripped of its natural protection, is burned by the sun and powdered by the wind into a hopeless desert. In northern Wisconsin and Michigan, where the depleted soil cannot be profitably farmed, it is true that the woods are allowed to spring up again, but the lumbering is so improvidently done that a worthless scrub growth generally takes the place of the destroyed forest. The denudation is so rapid that with all our natural optimism we cannot help looking with alarm at the approaching scarcity of an article so valuable at every step of our lives. Yet the Government does its best to hasten the evil hour, and does it apparently in mere carelessness.

It seems almost impossible to defend the lumber tariff. It is not in the interest of the manufacturer—he is impeded by the enhanced price he has to pay and threatened with an exhaustion of raw material; it is not in the interest of the farmer—he has to pay more for his house and more for every wooden thing he buys, while he is exposed to an increased danger from drought and flood. The whole country suffers, and the only persons benefited are a few great lumber firms—a mere handful of capitalists—whom the nation could far better afford to support in luxury at some European capital, where their destructive propensities would not be exercised at our expense. From their position as employers of a large force of men in a sparsely-settled region they have, of course, considerable political influence, but that need not be yielded to so tamely, and probably would not be if their position were better understood.

The method upon which our tariff was made up was that of buying off opposition by giving every interest a share in the protection distributed, and like most other political compromises it had its good points; but the danger it was especially exposed to was that of unduly assisting business interests which were particularly importunate or influential in politics at the expense of the well-being of the inattentive and unorganized community at large. This will plainly seem to have been triumphant in regard to our woodlands, upon which the tariff has had the most unfortunate effect. One thing that led to the mischievous blunder was probably a neglect of the difference between the lumber crop and most others in which foreign competition was feared. In most products increased prices tend to increase the supply. The tariff on wool did not exhaust the national stock, because it made it more profitable to breed sheep, and so it enormously increased the domestic flocks; but no such result followed from the lumber duties, because timber trees are so slow of growth that we cannot stop to cultivate them. Hence the tariff has not led to their planting anywhere, but only to the speedier sacrifice of the stock on hand. Here protection not only does not protect, but it hastens the rapidly approaching exhaustion of our native supply, so that the next generation must become dependent upon foreign support unless the evil process is arrested. The active encouragement of forest culture is probably a matter best accomplished by State action. State officials appointed to give their immediate personal care to the matter, and laws imposing a tax upon wild lands, from which land with good growing timber should be free, are expedients for State action which naturally occur to the mind. But at least we may demand of the national Government that it shall not offer a premium for forest destruction.

#### MARK TWAIN'S VISIT TO CANADA.

ACCORDING to a despatch from Ottawa, published on Thursday, there has been some "fearful blundering" over the interpretation of the Canadian copyright law within the past few weeks, and no one has blundered more than Mark Twain, who made a trip there in search of a copyright for a new book which he is bringing out. As a humorist Mark Twain must enjoy the account given of his attempts to get protection for his property, though as a literary man he may wish that the law of the subject was in a condition which would make the security greater and the fun less uproarious. He had, it seems, in the first instance, obtained an English copyright, which only requires first publication in England, and this copyright might naturally be supposed to extend to all the British possessions. Such, however, is by no means the case, for though by the laws of Canada the book cannot be reprinted in the Dominion, foreign reprints of it may be imported into Canada on payment of a royalty or duty. To protect his property against this a Canadian copyright is necessary, but a Canadian copyright cannot be obtained unless the author is domiciled in Canada.

Now, the meaning of domicile, though the word is of Latin origin, is extremely simple.

It means living in a place; and we all know that Mark Twain does not live in Canada. But, to alter slightly the sentiment once expressed by an eminent judge, if a man may ever be pardoned for quibbling about anything, he may be for quibbling to save his property. The proprietor of a copyright is so surrounded with enemies eager to waylay him and rob him that he may fairly resort to any shift that the most ingenious technicality can devise. So Mark Twain appears to have thought, for on discovering that it was necessary for him to have a Canadian domicile to get a Canadian copyright, he immediately stated that he had what he called an "elective domicile" in Canada. The only kind of elective domicile which is known in this country is the domicile which voters sometimes suddenly choose immediately before election for the purpose of casting their ballots, with the full intention of returning to what the lawyers call their domicile of origin as soon as they have cast them. But in Canada there is said to be a funny kind of domicile, unknown to our law, consisting of "an address or place where it has been agreed that delivery will be accepted." The Department of Agriculture, however, which for some reason best known to the Canadian Government has charge of matters connected with literary property, decided that Mark Twain's elective domicile was all moonshine, and that if he wished to get a Canadian copyright he must actually live in Canada. Few authors wish to do this, and so we presume Mark Twain has come home a sadder and wiser man.

He has the satisfaction of knowing, that if he has not succeeded in the object of his trip, he has at least brought to the attention of the world a new and amusing feature of the copyright problem. Canada is a country which, as regards copyright, is a good deal in the position occupied by the United States fifty years ago—that is, it produces few authors but a good many publishers. What these publishers want is protection, not for authors, but for themselves; and, according to the despatch already quoted, the Canadian Publishers' Association "is now moving in the direction of petitioning the Imperial Government for absolute power for the Dominion Parliament over copyright laws." The British Government has given Mr. West power as Commissioner to negotiate with our Government at Washington as to the proposed international treaty, and he has been instructed also to confer with the Canadian Government, and obtain such assistance as will ensure the protection of the "interests of Canada" in the event of an international copyright treaty being arranged between Great Britain and the United States. The "interests of Canada" mean the interests of the Canadian publishers; and it is highly important, whatever view we may take of their interests, that, in the consideration of the proposed copyright treaty, the relation of Canada to the contracting parties should be taken into the account. We have stated what is generally understood to be the law as it now exists; but the extent of the authority of the Dominion over copyright has never been fully determined by the English courts, and the recent adventures of Mark Twain, who of course acted under legal

advice, show that, between the three sets of laws now in existence, it is very difficult to know what the position of any copyright is. A treaty between England and the United States which left the status of copyright in Canada undetermined might lead to complications of a serious character.

#### NEW YEAR'S DAY.

THE decline in the observance of New Year's Day by "Society" in New York has at length reached a point at which its traditional customs may be said to have no longer any obligatory force. Although there is, probably, just as great a number of people who receive calls, and of other people who make them, as ever, both making and receiving have, in the world which is supposed to enact, amend, and repeal social laws, become as entirely optional as on any other day in the year. There is no more exultation over a long New Year's list of callers; there is no more remorse in the breast of the unfortunate wretch who has not called at all. This change was, of course, in the first instance due, as so many great social changes are, to feminine influence. Social laws are generally under feminine protection; men who undertake to originate reforms do so at their peril. The custom of New Year's calls once part of the social order, nothing could relieve men from the duty of calling it imposed upon them, except some action on the part of women to indicate that they intended to give up receiving. Accordingly the first step was taken when it was suddenly discovered to be "good form" to leave the city altogether for the day, and hang out a basket for cards as a sort of symbol of the hospitable intentions which absence alone prevented from having free play. The popularization of the card-basket, however, as might have been seen from the first, had a deterrent effect upon callers, who perceived at once that there was a wide difference between going to see people who stayed at home for the express purpose of receiving you, and leaving a card upon people who go out of town for the almost avowed purpose of avoiding you. In the same way, the failure to find in the card-basket a number of cards at all corresponding to the old list of "callers" led to a perception of the fact, on the part of the receiving sex, that even that relic of the custom might be abandoned without any loss to pride, and so, at first by degrees, but finally with great suddenness, New Year's calls have, as we say, ceased to be a matter of binding obligation at all.

The explanation of the disappearance of this social incubus—for such it had got, for Society, to be—that at once suggests itself to every observer of the changes which have taken place in New York in the last twenty-five years, is the great size of the city. The number of every one's acquaintances is so great, and the distances to be traversed are so serious, that it had become nearly a physical impossibility to make the rounds at all. The only way in which it could be done was to begin at an hour of the morning when the receiving sex could on no theory be supposed to wish to see anybody, and to keep it up, by rapid driving, and restricting the period of each visit to a moment of time, sufficient only to establish the caller's identity, till a late hour of the evening. The idea on which the old New York New Year's Day was based was that of sociability, but the new system of instantaneous visits was really a burlesque on sociability, and in fact had grown to be a huge social sham. The only excuse for social shams, as all moralists know, is their convenience and utility, and when a custom has developed not only into a sham, but into

a terribly onerous, inconvenient, and wearisome sham, it is surely doomed.

There are one or two influences besides this, however, which have had an important effect in determining the fate of New Year's Day. It is essential to the long-continued success of any social observance that it shall be restricted to "Society," and shall not be vulgarized by too great an extension and mimicry among those whom Society does not recognize as belonging to its own world. But New Year's calls have been, as any one can see from the newspapers, greatly vulgarized within the past generation. As the custom began to assume proportions in Society itself which threatened its ultimate extinction, a sort of passion for its observance seemed to spring up in the population of the city at large, which knows little of Society except by hearsay, or the accounts given of its doings in the press, or what can be seen of it in the streets. As a general rule, any very extensive imitation of the corporate proceedings of Society is forbidden by the amount of time and money required. Those who can afford time and money find it a much better plan to obtain admission to it than to imitate it. But here was something which required only one day in the year, and that a holiday, and a comparatively trifling outlay. To stay at home and "receive," requires nothing but that the receiver shall be a woman; to call, nothing but that the caller shall be a man. New Year's calls, therefore, could be placed on broad human grounds. They were open to all ranks, classes, and conditions, not only to the reserved and haughty millionaire and his wife and daughters, but to the genial and expansive "curbstone" broker and his; to the socially irresponsible "worker" who fixes the results of elections, as well as to the thoughtful and distant statesman who profits by them; to the tailor as to the swell made up by the tailor; to the milliner no less than the employer of the milliner. The head-waiter, the driver of the "bobtailed" horse-car, the boot-blacker, the lightning-rod man, the book peddler, and the "drummer"—all these and their wives and families saw in New Year's Day an opportunity for them to play, or seem to play, a part in the doings of Society. Now whatever else may be said of our best society, all observers are agreed that it is very undemocratic; and this spread of New Year's calls, far from pleasing it, as in accordance with the theory of our institutions it of course ought to have done, shocked its sensibilities. In Society, as in France, ridicule kills, and it does make the custom ridiculous to have the streets filled with "callers" who imagine that the proper dress to assume is a swallow-tailed coat and white kid gloves, and to have the columns of the papers filled with inquiries as to whether when four men hire a barouche for the purposes of the day they ought to send in their names on a joint card, or whether it is necessary for them to drink whatever is offered them in every house they go to.

Another perhaps more remote but probably powerful influence in producing the altered feeling of Society with regard to New Year's Day is that *anglomania* which, since the war, has done so much to change the social tone of New York. Society here has always been more or less imitative, and whereas down to about the time of the war it imitated Paris, it now imitates London. Like all other forms of mania, *anglomania* is irrational, but for that very reason all the more powerful. It does not lead to the importation or adaptation of English fashions and customs because they are good in themselves, or suited to the country, but simply because they are "English," and to be "English"

is to-day to be in "good form." Now the old New Year's Day was not, perhaps, exactly French, but it was much more nearly French than it was English. It was sociable, it was democratic, and something or other remotely resembling it prevailed in Paris.

In those now so distant days when there was in the United States no coaching and no anise-seed bag hunts, no five o'clock teas, and no anxious inquiries as to the proper pronunciation of the *a* in such difficult combinations as "glass" or "pass," but when the New York swell had a French tailor, a French bootmaker, and cultivated French manners, New Year's Day seemed a part of his "not too French" Frenchness. But the custom was obviously one which any one who wished to be regarded as "English" must look upon with suspicion and distaste. The mere idea of being on a given day bound to receive any one who considers himself an acquaintance—for that is what it came to—would necessarily be repulsive to an English lady, brought up to discriminate with sharp precision between those whom the receiver visits, bows to, shakes hands with, or cuts. The idea that it might be left to men to determine upon whom they might call would be shocking to every feeling that permeates English Society. Any attempt to introduce such a custom in London would produce a social pandemonium. Of course it is impossible now to discover who first struck a deliberate blow at New Year's, but we fancy, if the matter could be probed to its depths, it would be found that the revolution was set on foot by reformers who, after due reflection, had come to the conclusion that for Americans who desired before all things to be really and truly English, a custom so obviously unsuited to London must be given up in New York.

#### Correspondence.

REASONABLE DOUBT AS TO INSANITY.  
TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your comments on the article of a correspondent published under the above heading in the last number (860) of the *Nation*, you omit to cite Mississippi as one of the States holding that the burden of proof, when the question of sanity is in issue in criminal trials, is on the State.

In the case of *Cunningham vs. The State*, 56 Miss., 276, Mr. Justice Chalmers, delivering the opinion of the court, says:

"We think the true rule is this: Every man is presumed to be sane, and in the absence of testimony engendering a reasonable doubt of sanity no evidence on the subject need be offered; but whenever the question of sanity is raised and put in issue by such facts, proven on either side, as engender such doubt, it devolves upon the State to remove it, and to establish the sanity of the prisoner to the satisfaction of the jury beyond all reasonable doubt arising out of all the evidence in the case."

The reasoning of the court on which the conclusion given is based seems to be unanswerable. The argument is thus stated by Judge Chalmers:

"Because he is a human being the accused is presumed to be sane. He must be sane in order to be guilty. The trial commences with the presumption that he is so. If nothing in the testimony suggests otherwise, there is no obligation to establish sanity; but the moment the proof warrants a reasonable doubt of it, no matter from which side it comes, that doubt must be removed. Which side must remove it? Manifestly that side which set out to show guilt, because there can be no guilt without sanity. The condition of sanity, which is ordinarily the attribute of all men, has been rendered doubtful as to the particular man, and, as his guilt depends upon his sanity, its existence must be shown in the same manner and to the same ex-

tent as any of the other elements which go to make up the crime. What logic or consistency can there be in saying that all the other elements [of crime] must be established beyond a reasonable doubt, but that this one—certainly as essential as any other—may be assumed on less satisfactory proof? True, the case started with the theory that it existed; but can this in any wise affect the condition in which it must be left at the close, if it has, during the progress of the trial, been rendered doubtful? How can a jury say, We have no doubt of the guilt of the prisoner, but we doubt whether he was sane? If a jury in a capital case should bring in such a verdict, would it not be judicial murder to inflict a sentence of death? And yet many such verdicts are practically inevitable under a theory of the law which holds that the burden of proving insanity rests upon the accused, and that he must be convicted unless he has clearly proved it beyond all reasonable doubt."

Yours respectfully,  
S. J.  
JACKSON, Miss., Dec. 26, 1881.

[The only reply, it seems to us, that can be successfully made to this reasoning is, that it involves a confusion between the law relating to the burden of proof and the technical doctrine of "reasonable doubt." The burden of proof, which merely means in ordinary language that the plaintiff must make out his case, is the same in criminal trials as in civil causes. But in the former the state is required in England and America to go a little beyond this, and make out its case "beyond a reasonable doubt." Precisely what this means no judge has ever been able to explain to any jury; and the rule itself is capable of two widely different interpretations. It may mean either that the prisoner is entitled to have the judge tell the jury that to convict they must be satisfied of his *guilt* beyond a reasonable doubt, or that they must be satisfied beyond a reasonable doubt as to every particular fact which goes to make up the guilt—*e.g.*, sanity, identity, presence at the time of the commission of the crime. Some courts have taken the latter view, but we do not know that the reasons *pro* and *con* have ever been fully gone into by any court of high standing, with a full sense of the importance of the point involved. If "reasonable doubt" applies to every particular fact in the case, this condition of the law would sometimes lead to singular results. For instance, in the Costley case in Massachusetts there was a "reasonable doubt" as to which of three counties the murder had been committed in, owing to an uncertainty as to the county line, so that if the jury had given the prisoner the benefit of the doubt as to this fact, he could not have been convicted in any one of them. On the other hand, if a judge tells the jury merely that all reasonable doubts as to guilt must be removed, the effect of this must be merely to carry out what was undoubtedly the original intention of the rule—that the jury should be more cautious in criminal than in civil trials. The tendency of recent decisions, however, seems in the direction of applying the rule of reasonable doubt to every fact in the case. The matter may become one of serious importance in Guiteau's case on appeal.—ED. NATION.]

#### THE EXCAVATIONS AT ASSOS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I hear with almost consternation that the excavations of the American Institute of Archaeology at Assos, Asia Minor, are not assured of their continuance and may even be sus-

pended or abandoned this winter. In any other civilized country the Government would have come in aid at once of such an undertaking, especially when its results have already given earnest of so much importance and so much has been done by private means. It is quite within the bounds of probability that these excavations, dealing as they do with the entire range of classical time, and even prehistoric matter, may, if conducted seriously, as begun, and persistently, as they merit, be the most important contributions to archaeology of the century, certainly far more important than those of Schliemann either at Hissarlik or Mycenæ. Every American who has the slightest interest in classic archaeology, or pride in his country's reputation for liberal education, owes it to himself to contribute his mite; and some of those who spend so profusely for public purposes which the whole public can appreciate, would do well to water this enterprise with a little of their bounty. There is no undertaking now on foot under American direction, to my knowledge, half so likely to render honor to the country as this work of the Institute of Archaeology, and it will be a disgrace to the nation if the pittance demanded for the continuance of the work is not at once given and even trebled. Either the French, German, or English Government under the same circumstances would have given pounds sterling where the Institute asks for dollars. The work should not be stopped for a day. The winter season is always the most fruitful in discoveries, and especially in the finding of small objects of value, as the rains wash them free from the soil; and to abandon the ground for a month is to leave it open to clandestine search by the experienced native excavators, who will profit by the work done, and may carry away objects of inestimable value, as everything from Assos is valuable, but especially so when exactly located.

The public spirit of the United States should put \$50,000 at once into the treasury of the Institute to drive this work through with a despatch and thoroughness which would do credit to the nation.

W. J. STILLMAN.

P. S.—I am a poor man, but I send Professor Norton for the excavations at Assos \$25.

ATHENS, Greece, December 9, 1881.

#### THE TRUE MONROE DOCTRINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Hon. John A. Kasson has devoted an article, in the September number of the *North American Review*, to what he calls the "Monroe Declaration." He gives us the genesis of what is more usually called the "Monroe Doctrine," and, as far as he goes, with that correctness which might have been expected from a gentleman as intelligent and well informed as Mr. Kasson is known to be. But to a proper understanding of what was meant by President Monroe in his celebrated message of December, 1823, we have to take the strictly American view of the political condition of Europe at the time in question. In the "Holy Alliance" (which, by the way, had no practical importance, and was the offspring of a mystical whim of the Czar-Alexander I.) our American statesmen could take only an academic interest. The allied powers spoken of by Mr. Monroe in his message—not the shadowy Holy Alliance—were Russia, Prussia, Austria, and France, who at their conference at Carlsbad and their congresses at Tropau, Laibach, and Verona, had, upon the urgent insistence of Prince Metternich, raised the legitimacy of hereditary monarchy to a fundamental principle of universal application, and had pledged themselves to support it by actual intervention in favor of every reigning dynasty of Europe. In consequence of their agreement, publicly proclaimed to the world, the popular

risings in Piedmont and in Naples were suppressed by armed force, Austria acting as executioner; and so was the revolution in Spain against Ferdinand VII., France by her army performing the office of peacemaker.

The Spanish Colonies on this continent had been in open revolt against the mother country ever since 1812, and Spain seemed to be wholly unable to reconquer them. The United States had recognized their independence, and valuable commercial interests had sprung up between us and the Spanish American States, who had freed themselves from the colonial bondage which fettered their trade with the outside world. Besides these important material interests, it was but natural that the people of the United States should cordially sympathize with their American neighbors, and should ardently desire the republican system to be extended on this continent. The latter consideration had of course no weight with England, even while Mr. Canning was Secretary of the Foreign Office. Commercial interests, however, made England as keen in maintaining the republics of Mexico and of Central and South America as these interests did the United States. England's policy in that respect has never changed. When Mr. August Belmont, in July, 1861, in an interview with Lord Palmerston, who had the reputation of always taking the liberal side in any revolutionary movement outside of England, expressed himself somewhat astonished that England, which had so long combated slavery and had supported the anti-slavery party in the United States, should now rather incline to favor the slaveholders, he was answered by the noble lord: "We don't like slavery, but we want cotton, and don't like your Morrill tariff." It had become known to Canning that, after the Liberals in Spain had been subdued, the King's Government had made an attempt to obtain the help of the allied powers for the purpose of reconquering the Spanish colonies in America. He was afraid that France and Russia would enter into the scheme, and, if successful, would gain important advantages in commercial favors, perhaps even in territorial cessions. Hence his anxiety to enlist the United States in a protest against such intervention on the part of the allied powers. The fears of Canning, and also of our own statesmen, turned out afterward to have been unfounded. France particularly disavowed any intention to interfere. This disavowal, however, may have been caused, in part at least, by the stand which Mr. Monroe had taken, and which was known in diplomatic circles a considerable time before his declaration was made public.

Now, then, against what points was the Monroe Doctrine directed? Let it speak for itself:

"We owe it to candor, and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and the allied powers to declare, that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered, and shall not interfere; but with the Governments who have declared their independence and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and just principles, acknowledged, we could not view an interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as a manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States."

In another part of the same message, and with reference to a very different subject, the message declared that "the American continents should no longer be subjects for any new European colonial settlements." As to this, it is not necessary to say more than that it had special reference to our northwestern country on the Pacific Coast, which we claimed under the treaty with Spain of 1819, and part of which was claimed

by Russia. It was a bare claim by Russia, no colony having been established nor any sort of occupation taken by that power. This conflict was then pending, and ended in a settlement, as did also the later controversy with Great Britain on the same coast, by the Treaty of Washington, concluded in 1846. As the whole American continent and islands contiguous to it are now occupied either by independent states or by European powers, that part of the message has become obsolete and may be dismissed from consideration.

What, then, did the first branch mean, when it was promulgated, considered in the light of the surrounding circumstances? It meant this: Some of the governments on this continent have declared themselves independent, and successfully thus far sustained their independence. We have recognized their independence. We have reason to believe that the allied powers (Russia, Prussia, Austria, and France) contemplate an interference between Spain and those governments, according to the system of intervention which they have proclaimed in Europe, and just successfully carried out. Against this intervention we may feel bound to intervene, and we give you fair warning thereof. Nothing was said about the United States abandoning the neutrality which they had heretofore observed between Spain and her resisting colonies. If Spain would reconquer them, she might try; but the United States would not permit this to be done with the assistance of the allied powers who were bent on propagating absolute monarchical government over the whole world, and introducing their system of intervention into the New World.

As stated by Mr. Kasson, the draft of that passage of President Monroe's message was submitted to Thomas Jefferson, surely one of our most distinguished statesmen, particularly in foreign affairs. In his reply to Mr. Monroe, he expressed himself as follows:

"I could honestly, therefore, join in the declaration proposed, that we aim not at the acquisition of any of those Spanish-American possessions, that we will not stand in the way of any amicable arrangement between them and the mother country, that we will oppose, with all our means, the forcible interposition of any other power as auxiliary, stipendiary, or under any form or pretext, and most especially their transfer to any power by conquest, cession, or acquisition in any other way."

This is Mr. Jefferson's interpretation, and undoubtedly the only correct one, of the Monroe Doctrine. The latter part of his remarks has reference to the fear entertained that Spain, in order to reconquer her vast domains, might cede part of it, as a consideration for assistance, to France or Russia—powers which of course would have been far more formidable to us than declining Spain. This, also, was Mr. Canning's great fear, for one of the points which he was very anxious we should join England in publicly declaring, was, "That we could not see any portion of them [the Spanish-American colonies] transferred to any other power with indifference" (August 20, 1823). To leave no doubt upon the true construction of the Monroe Declaration, and to do away with all false impressions and erroneous inferences which had even then been drawn by some, the House of Representatives in 1825 passed the following resolutions:

"That the United States ought not to become parties with the Spanish-American republics, or either of them, to any joint declaration for the purpose of preventing the interference of any of the European powers with their independence or form of government, or to any compact for the purpose of preventing colonization upon the continents of America; but that the people of the United States should be left free to act in any crisis in such a manner as their feelings of friendship toward these republics, and as their own honor and policy, may at the time dictate."

As late as 1848, in a debate about the acquisition of Yucatan, Mr. Calhoun, who had been in Mr. Monroe's Cabinet, and was one of the advisers of the Monroe Declaration, emphatically asserted in the Senate that "the United States was under no pledge to intervene against intervention, but was to act in each case as policy and justice required." (See note 36, p. 97, 'Wheaton's International Law,' Dana.) As before stated, the principle of intervention was never carried out, if ever entertained, by the allied powers, as regards Spain and its revolted colonies. Spain struggled along in a hopeless contest, recognizing the independence of those states gradually, and it was not until some time in 1870, I believe, after a last faint assertion of sovereignty in 1864 over Peru and Chili, that their independence was finally acknowledged by Spain.

The occasion for such a declaration as that contained in the message of President Monroe in 1823 will in all probability never arise again. The Monroe Doctrine, as understood by its authors and the statesmen of that time, has passed into the domain of history, furnishing one of its brightest pages for our people, and reflecting the highest credit on President Monroe, his Cabinet, and his advisers, who defied the greatest powers of Europe when supposed to be desirous to extend their system (of intervention for the suppression of liberty) to the American continents. It is obvious that in its true sense that part of the Monroe Declaration which refers to a combined intervention of European governments with American states is just as dead as the other branch of it in regard to colonization. And yet with all this easily accessible documentary evidence before our eyes, coupled with the fact that our Government as such, in its relation with foreign powers, has never since insisted on this doctrine, there having been no occasion for it, there is no subject more misunderstood than this very Monroe Declaration. Even Mr. Kasson, just returned from his mission to Austria, and having made a particular study of the subject—to judge from the opening remarks of his article—seems to share the same loose, vague, and ever-changing ideas in regard to it with the great majority of the American people.

"The Monroe Doctrine," he says, "is quoted as the supreme, indisputable, and irreversible judgment of our National Union. Among the very few maxims which serve to guide public opinion in our country this ranks as the chief. It has also taken fast hold on the popular mind. A President of the United States, justly appealing to it in an emergency, could not fail of the unanimous following of patriotic citizens, even in presence of a consequently impending war. It touches the instincts of national safety and of pride in our national institutions."

The Monroe Doctrine proper, however, as understood at the time it was made, and with its limitations as applicable to a particular crisis, could have no such stirring effects as Mr. Kasson ascribes to it. But what has been from time to time substituted for it, its misunderstood meaning, may often have excited the American people. Some have taken it to mean that America belongs to the Americans (whatever that may signify); others, that we have a right to extinguish all monarchical governments still found on this continent; others, that we have a right to annex all territories on the continent, republican or otherwise, that we have a mind to. It was invoked in 1836, when the French part of Canada had risen against the English Government; it was invoked to further the annexation of Texas; it was appealed to whenever a filibustering expedition started for Cuba. When France in 1838 made war on Mexico and attempted to besiege Vera Cruz, it lay at the bottom of the Ostend Manifesto. It was loudly called into requisition when France imported Maxi-

milian and his ephemeral empire into Mexico; and, lastly, now, when a private company, under the auspices of M. Lesseps, has undertaken to dig a canal through the Isthmus of Panama—a corporation, by the way, which offered its stock to any American citizen who had a surplus to invest in a hazardous undertaking.

These appeals, however, were made by the press, by orators in and out of Congress, but never by any act of Congress or by our Government as such. True statesmen do not rule by doctrines, programmes, or platforms. With them the welfare of the people is the supreme law. They do not commit themselves by generalities. Every conflict that arises is judged by them according to the circumstances of the times. If our interests or our honor be threatened in the particular instance, then they protest, then they arm, then they go to war, independent of sentiments, of traditions, of programmes, of doctrines. The highest commercial interests, the permanency of our republican institutions, would have been seriously threatened had Spain, by the help of the allied powers, reduced her revolted provinces to subjection, or ceded them in part to other far more powerful nations. Here was an emergency, and Mr. Monroe met it manfully, but not on philosophical, abstract principles. If allied or single European powers should at this day try to conquer some of our sister republics, and plant monarchical institutions on American soil, so as to endanger our own safety, the American people would calmly weigh the matter, and, without any reference to former action, decide the case for itself, and no President would fail to carry out this decision. It would go to war just as if the Monroe Declaration had never been made.

The invasion of Mexico by the French in 1862, under pretence of enforcing a settlement of claims (most of which were fraudulent and held by the Emperor's intimate associates in crime), but in truth to subvert the Republican Government and to assist the Clerical-Conservative party in Mexico to establish a monarchy, furnished, perhaps, the most plausible reason for an application of the Monroe Doctrine. There was this difference, however, in the case: at the time of the Monroe message Spain was to be assisted in her conquest by the great powers of Europe, and the principle of intervention was to be applied to America, as was feared. In 1862 there was a powerful clerical and monarchical party in Mexico itself, not strong in number, but in wealth, rank, and intelligence. They acted, at least apparently, as the home Government, called a Congress of "Notables" together, proclaimed a monarchy, and called (1864) the Archduke Maximilian to the throne.

Mr. Seward recognized this distinction. Early in February, 1863, a letter of Louis Napoleon's, written in 1862 to General Forey, who, after the French had been at first repulsed from Puebla, had been appointed commander-in-chief of the French army, very unaccountably found its way into the French papers. In an interview which the American Minister in Spain had with Marshal Serrano, Minister of Foreign Affairs, after official business had been disposed of, an unofficial conversation took place, in which the latter expressed his very great surprise at the letter in which Louis Napoleon had foreshadowed his intention to establish a Government in Mexico, and would hereafter protect the Latin races on the American Continent from the dictation and encroachments of the Anglo-Saxons in the North. The American Minister shared this surprise, not so much at the contents of the letter itself, but that it ever should have been made public, and took occasion to say that his Government would not look upon this plan with indifference, but would consider it as highly danger-

ous to its interests, and would take proper action to prevent it. The American Minister, in his next despatch, called the attention of Mr. Seward to this remarkable letter, and reported also the conversation with General Serrano in regard to it. Mr. Seward, however, in his reply (February 28, 1863) to this despatch, expressed his regret that the Minister should have used this language, remarking that the United States were strictly neutral in this affair, and he desired him to explain to General Serrano that what the Minister had said to him was only his private opinion, and not that of the Government he represented. As the Minister at once perceived that this despatch was intended for Paris and not for Madrid, he made no such explanation or apology, and Mr. Seward afterward approved of this omission. Sure enough, on the 29th of May, 1863, Mr. Dayton informed Mr. Seward that he had read to Mr. Drouyn de Lhuys a copy of the despatch of February 28 to our Minister at Madrid, and that Mr. Drouyn de Lhuys expressed himself very kindly, saying that he was much gratified by the contents (Message and Documents Department of State, 1863-1864, part ii., p. 741). Later on, when it was well understood that, after the French had taken possession of the City of Mexico and started a provisional government, negotiations had been set on foot to make Mexico a monarchy, and to call Maximilian to the throne, Mr. Motley, our Minister at Vienna, became very much alarmed, considered this conquest of the capital as "fraught with piteous woe to our country" (August 17, 1863), reminded Mr. Seward of the Monroe Doctrine, and asked the Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs for explanations; but Mr. Seward most emphatically instructed him to make no representations to the Emperor of Austria, as chief of the House of Austria, regarding Maximilian's acceptance of the crown. To serve, as it were, as a guide for our other ministers, Mr. Seward sent a copy of this despatch to all our chief ministers in Europe. In his despatch (October 9, 1863) to Mr. Motley, Mr. Seward very elaborately repeated those instructions. It contains this remarkable passage :

"France has invaded Mexico, and war exists between the two countries. The United States hold, in regard to these two states and their conflict, the same principle that they hold in relation to all other nations and their mutual wars. *They have neither a right nor any disposition to intervene by force in the internal affairs of Mexico, whether to establish or maintain a republican or even a domestic government there, or to overthrow an imperial or a foreign one, if Mexico shall choose to establish or accept it.*" (Despatch to Mr. Motley, Oct. 9, 1863.)

Mr. Seward distinctly denied even here the application of the Monroe Doctrine. It would be a very great mistake, however, to infer from this course of Mr. Seward that he for one moment forgot the true interests of our country. We were still in the midst of our troubles, and so he bided his time. His policy was that of opportunity, which, in fact, is the only true one for a statesman. He was determined from the start, if we could, to drive out the French, and to make an end to the empire of Maximilian. In spite of the urgency of the French Government, he declined, in the politest manner, to recognize the new Latin empire. But as soon as he ascertained that the Mexican expedition had become extremely odious in France itself, and we had triumphed over the rebellion, and hundreds of thousands of veterans of the victorious and vanquished armies were ready and anxious at once to spring to arms to restore a republican government in Mexico, he began reminding Louis Napoleon of his promises that the French should evacuate the country after the government of Maximilian was once estab-

lished, not only once but again, and again, and so pressingly and persuasively invited the French to step out, using always the most courteous language, that France could no longer resist his friendly admonition, and took her leave, being handsomely complimented by Mr. Seward for so doing. The withdrawal of the French army was the end of the unfortunate Mexican empire.

The true Monroe Doctrine is the interest of our country ; and what that interest is, and how it is to be protected, and whether it is to be asserted or not, is to be judged by the circumstances existing at the time such judgment is to be exercised, unfettered by any traditions, or programmes, or doctrines, or precedents. Practically, we have always so acted, and as long as we have statesmen at the helm of state, and not mere "doctrinaires" or political "aspirants," we shall continue so to act, whether our action squares with the Monroe or any other doctrine or not. No doctrine will excuse us when we act unjustly, and none will prevent us from asserting our rights, at any cost, when our interest or our honor is involved.

GUSTAVE KOERNER.

BELLEVILLE, Ill., Dec. 20, 1881.

## Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO. are about to publish a new translation of Herman Grimm's Tales, with illustrations by Walter Crane. They will directly bring out Nordenstiöld's 'Voyage of the Vega.'—Canon Luckock's 'Studies in the History of the Prayer-Book,' and the Rev. Andrew Jukes's 'The New Man and Life Eternal,' are announced by T. Whittaker.—Fords, Howard & Hulbert have in press for Sunday-school use a "comparative edition" of the old and new versions of the Gospel of Mark, edited by Dr. Roswell D. Hitchcock.—The first number of the fourth volume of the *American Journal of Mathematics* (for March, 1881) was issued just before the close of the year. The management of the *Journal* has taken its printing back to Baltimore again, the press of Isaac Friedenwald printing this number. The typography, if in any respect different from the Cambridge print, is improved by the change. It should not escape remembrance, however, that merely to print such mathematical papers as appear in the *Journal* is no easy matter, to say nothing of typographical elegance; and in this regard the *American Journal* seems to have been more fortunate than a number of its foreign contemporaries. We note the absence of the names of the former associate editors, as also that of the late managing editor, Dr. Story.—Engravings of some of the bas-reliefs from the temple of Assos accompany a brief report on the result of the excavations, by the director, Mr. Joseph Thacher Clarke, in the *American Architect* for December 10.—We have been favored by Prof. Henry W. Haynes, of Boston, with a copy of his 'Discovery of Palaeolithic Implements in Upper Egypt,' a paper extracted from the 'Memoirs' of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and containing four pages of text and seven beautiful plates in the Albertype method, illustrative of some of the more "select" finds made by the author in the valley of the Nile during the winter of 1877-8. Prof. Haynes asks whether the discovery of his "large quantity of flint implements" may not be "fairly claimed to have settled the vexed question of the existence of the 'stone age' in Egypt." Reasons for thinking the question to have been previously settled were given in a controversy in Nos. 811, 813 of the *Nation*.—The Census Office has begun to issue Forestry Bulletins, of which the first instalment shows in beautifully colored maps

the pine supply (chiefly) of Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Texas, and Minnesota. Tables of estimates, in feet of board measure, of the standing wood are supplied by Prof. C. S. Sargent.

—The proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at the Boston meeting in August, 1880, have been published in two parts, numbering together nearly 800 pages. First on the list of the "Communications" is that remarkable, perhaps epoch making, paper by Professor Graham Bell, "On the Production and Reproduction of Sound by Light." A single contribution by a woman, "Field-work for Amateurs," by Ellen Hardin Walworth, occurs in the Natural History section.—The American Oriental Society have published their Proceedings at New Haven in October, 1881. Professor C. H. Toy's comments on F. Delitzsch's discussion of the site of Eden are the most interesting for laymen. Two-thirds of the pamphlet is taken up with additions to the library from July, 1878, to date, of which the collection by the late Dr. Joseph P. Thompson constitutes by far the larger portion.—From the Long Island Historical Society we have a list of recent additions to its library, including the newly completed sets of the Calendars of English State Papers, and the Chronicles and Memorials of Great Britain and Ireland during the Middle Ages. Here, too, are the 125 volumes of the Camden Society's publications. The librarian, Mr. Hannah, gives hopes of an early beginning of a catalogue of the Society's 35,000 volumes.—Bound volumes of *Lippincott's Magazine* (xxviii.) and the *North American Review* (xxxiii.) are on our table, both noticeable, aside from their intrinsic merit, for the indifference displayed in the tables of contents. — J. W. Bouton sends the first number of the *Bibliographer*, published by Elliot Stock, London, in a form exactly corresponding to the *Antiquary*, but with a somewhat more attractive typography. The editor is Mr. Henry R. Wheatley, and Messrs. J. O. Halliwell-Phillips and William Blades are among the contributors at the start. This periodical would but half fulfil expectations if it did not attempt occasional illustrations, and these are promised, such as "fac-simile titles of rare books" (recalling Mr. Stevens's plan of cataloguing).—The most artistic likeness of the late President Garfield that we have seen is the artotype vignette mounted on a buff card, and published by Mr. John Snare, 701 Broadway.—The announcement is made that Friedrich von Heliwald ceases to be the editor of *Das Ausland* with the present year, and that he will be succeeded by Professor Ratzel, who proposes to restrict that periodical exclusively to the science of geography. Other news of importance is that the Augsburg *Allegemeine Zeitung* is to be published from the beginning of the present year in Munich.

—B. Westermann & Co. send us the *Almanach de Gotha* for 1882, which, but for its prevailing color, might be called a red-letter volume; for an unprecedented number of censuses have become available since its last issue, and will be found compactly bestowed under their respective headings. The change of rulers in Russia has led both to a considerable "rotation" in office and to some reforms, and has therefore compelled an entire overhauling of the article on that country. The *Almanach's* year closed just on the eve of Guiteau's fatal shot, and the following significant entry ends the *chronique* for this country: "May 16. On account of the President's adhering to Robertson's nomination for the New York collectorship, Senators Conkling and Pratt resign their seats." A very fair likeness of President Garfield is one of the *Almanach's* regular quartet, another being Alexander III.'s. The *Almanach* claps Tunis under France, in spite of administrative

protestations, and the Transvaal under Great Britain, in both cases accepting the logic of events, and welcomes Rumania for the first time as a full-blown kingdom. The editors will, during the present year and hereafter, issue a supplement containing a full list, even to the vice-consuls, of diplomatic and consular agents. — The same firm sends us two new Tauchnitz volumes (8vo) edited by Dr. Oscar von Gebhardt, first custodian of the University Library at Halle, containing respectively the New Testament according to Tischendorf's latest revision—the eighth—compared with the text of Tregelles, and that of Westcott-Hort; and the Tischendorfian Greek side by side with Canstein's century-old revision of Luther's translation, the variants in both languages being noted. Of course, one who compares these with the text of the English Revised Version will find all the discarded texts retained, and some, but not all, of the old errors of the King James Version. In other words, the editing, which seems faultless in its own sphere, is historical and not critical.—From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, we have a political map of France, in a new school series for the wall, edited by Richard Kiepert. It is issued in four sheets, and when mounted will measure about five feet by four. The physical features are not neglected, though their scientific expression in levels, etc., is reserved for a companion physical map of the same country. The lettering on the map before us for the smaller divisions and for places would be hardly legible at any great distance from a class. Otherwise the map is as pleasant to the eye as it is trustworthy. The series will embrace the whole of Europe, and on a uniform scale, except in the case of Russia and Scandinavia, of which the scale will be but one-third and two-thirds as large. The price in marks is, for the four-plate maps, about \$1.25, and for the six-plate, about \$1.90.

— We are glad to announce that the 'History of Greek Philosophy,' by Prof. H. Schwegler, for some time in process of translation, will probably appear early in the present year. Schwegler's 'General History of Philosophy,' in its two translations, has long been favorably known to English scholars as the most successful attempt yet made to condense into 200 octavo pages the entire current of human thought. Accurate as it is, however, it is as little readable as Freeman's 'Outlines of History,' and is of principal use to those already acquainted with its material. Schwegler's 'History of Greek Philosophy,' on the contrary, is the best book on the subject, even in Germany, to which a young student can be sent who wishes precision, moderate fulness, and the allurement of an agreeable style. It is not an outline like May or's, nor a brilliant series of sketches like Ferrier's, nor a course of sermons on philosophic themes like Archer Butler's, nor a repository of all learning like Zeller's. It is moderate in compass, sober, learned, engaging, a book to supply a need especially in college instruction. The translator is Mr. Henry Norman.

— Mr. Norman, who acted the part of Creon in the memorable performance of the "Oedipus" last summer, has written an 'Account of the Harvard Greek Play' (Boston: James R. Osgood and Co.). It may be "eminently proper," as Professor Goodwin says in his prefatory note, "that the first performance of a Greek tragedy in America should be commemorated in some permanent record"; but surely that record should have been intrusted to a more practised hand. If the book were a mere "college book," the enthusiastic young student might have been suffered to descant on the sensation that the play made and the enhanced price of admission tickets, but the professors who did so much for

the play should have crowned their work by taking charge of the chapters on "Sophocles" and "Oedipus the King," and by a sharp revision of the strange jumble which makes up the bulk of the book under the title "The Performance," in which Sophocles the poet and Mr. Millet the costumer struggle for preëminence. The groups and portraits with which the little volume is illustrated, fifteen in number, are heliotype reproductions. The groups, which were made from photographs taken by the electric light, are—let us be frank—fearful to behold, and no matter how cunningly Mr. Millet arranged his "rich but deep-toned reds," his lavender tunics, his delicate blues and salmons, the imagination refuses to associate these admirable hues with the black figures and scowling faces of the photographs; and one cannot but quarrel with the light that has transformed the thoughtful if unheroic face of Mr. Riddle (plate i.) into the unmistakable Ah Sin of plate xii., and the Tecumseh of plate xiv. This is a positive wrong done to the meritorious actors of the piece; a wrong which is not fully redeemed by the sunlight portraits of the principal personages—some of them excellent. As for the great impulse given to Greek studies, if the outcome is to be a weak imitation of Harvard, the benefit is questionable. College presidents will shake their heads when they read that for five months there were three or four rehearsals a week, and that for the six weeks preceding the performance there was a rehearsal every day, to say nothing of the vast drain on the time and energies of the professorial managers. A smaller college than Harvard would simply be broken up by it for the entire session. Even Harvard has not got over it yet, as is shown by this book, although much force has not gone into the preparation of the account of the Greek play.

— The Archæological Institute of America have resolved not to await the accumulation of the fund needed to carry out on a permanent foundation their project of an American School of Classical Studies at Athens. They have accordingly made overtures to some of the principal colleges to coöperate by an offer (on the part of each) of one or more fellowships to its students "for a residence of not less than two years at the School, to be obtained as the reward for distinguished proficiency in classical studies during the undergraduate course." The director of the School it is proposed to choose for a term of one or two years from among the professors or teachers of Greek in the associated colleges, his salary to be continued by the faculty which gives him leave of absence. It remains to provide by annual appropriation for the necessary expenses of the school, which it is thought should not exceed \$2,500. A gentleman connected with Harvard College has pledged \$250 for a term of ten years (or less if a fund be meantime secured), and the friends and alumni of other colleges will, we cannot doubt, be willing to contribute in like measure. The chairman of the committee is Prof. John Williams White, Cambridge.

— That these fellowships may ere long be applied for by the gentler sex seems probable from the statistics for the past year of the Harvard "Annex," or "Private Collegiate Instruction for Women." In Greek there were four classes and twenty-one students; in Latin, four and seventeen, in mathematics, four and eleven, respectively. German had three classes and eleven students, history three and twelve. "All the courses in Greek were taken," and the tendency clearly was "toward the traditional classical curriculum and not toward science." The considerable number of courses uncalled for were almost entirely non-classical. Out of forty-seven students, sixteen were taking their second year. Of the whole number, Massachusetts furnished thirty-nine and New England forty-

two. Nearly half the Massachusetts students came from Cambridge; and Boston and Cambridge together furnished one-half of the whole. Ten young ladies had studied at or graduated from other colleges, including Smith, Vassar, and Wellesley. The examinations, marked upon the same scale as for the young men, were very gratifying to the instructors. "Though the application of the young ladies has been assiduous, the condition of their health has been uniformly good"; and Dr. Sargent, director of the Hemingway Gymnasium, has, at his own expense, fitted up rooms (not connected with his own establishment) with appropriate apparatus, and gives those who frequent them the benefit of his advice. The Reference Library has grown by gift and purchase to considerable proportions. Scholarships in numbers to meet all the actual demands have been provided by friends of the enterprise, and the expenses have so far fallen within the estimates that the support of the course is assured for six years instead of four. "At the end of that time the managers will consider that their work has been accomplished," and the responsibility of its continuance "will be laid upon the public." They appear confident, and all the friends of the higher education will unite with them in hoping, that an adequately endowed institution will then arise.

— The two most entertaining articles in the *Atlantic* for January are Mr. Howells's "Police Report" and an anonymous writer's "Studies in the South." These studies have included a region little visited by strangers—the mountain land of illicit stills and crooked whiskey. We cannot describe very definitely the particular provinces of the moonshiners' country visited by our observer—who, by the way, writes in a manner that recalls the descriptions of Northern American life, published some years since in the same magazine, by Mr. J. B. Harrison—since he leaves the locality very vague, for reasons which will be apparent to any moonshiner or internal-revenue officer who may read what he says; but, wherever it was, the account given leaves no doubt in the reader's mind as to its truth and accuracy. The picture is perhaps a barren one, except in bringing vividly before the mind what, in the case of systematic outlawry, is so generally forgotten by the civilized man—that the outlaws themselves regard their business as essentially legitimate if unlawful, and look on murder and violence, resorted to as a means of preventing interference with it, merely as a disagreeable necessity, covered by the natural right of self-defence. The proprietor of the mountain-still is in reality a small farmer, to whom his still is as much a part of his inalienable "plant" as a cider-press might be in other parts of the country. He has always made whiskey. His fathers and grandfathers made it before him. As an aged moonshiner, who was the source of much information to the writer, said: "It don't do nobody any harm. It's about all the way we have of makin' any money in this wooden country. It don't go into the general trade of the country enough to amount to anything"—a fact over which the reader who has been unpatriotic enough to put the virtues of untaxed whiskey to the test of experiment, may well pause to breathe a sigh of regret. The liquor is made by these simple mountaineers out of their own corn, and the actual collection of the tax upon it would probably result in their migration *en masse*. The opening of the country by railroads to new industries is already beginning to hem them in, and make their life more difficult. A very graphic and pathetic description of the inroads soon to be made by civilization is given by the old man already quoted, whose conversation has a genuinely conservative tone:

"But this hyur country's all a goin' to change. It's a goin' to be most everlastin'ly *improved*, ye see. I sha'n't never be improved; I'm too old. But the old ways is a comin' to an end. They's men a buyin' up thousan's of acres of this land. They'll be railroads built, direc'ly, hither an' yan, more 'n 'll do anybody any good. They'll cut off the woods for fuel an' lumber, an' they'll be mines an' quarries up hyur, they say. An' they'll be mean, dirty little towns laid out, all about. Then, instid o' people drinkin' a little healthy whiskey, as we've always done, they'll be forty times as much miser'ble pison stuff sold an' drunk, an' whoever drinks it'll begin to steal an' lie. I reckon they'll be some mighty fine houses built som'eres along this river, an' they'll put big scientific locks on to their doors, an' thievers 'll come up from Cincinnarter an' Chat'noog', an' break into 'em. They ain't never been a lock on to a door in these mountains. But they's a goin' to be the all-fairest improvements about hyur, an' I s'pose our people 'll farn to steal too; haft to, to keep up an' live. An' they'll be some o' them city women hyur, I reckon, from them big places, with their fine feathers, an' their dresses a draggin' on to the ground, an' they'll be the devil to pay among our young men. That's what they call *civilization*, ain't it, stranger? I tell ye, this country 'll soon be improvin' like hell, but I sha'n't live to see much of it, I reckon."

The deep-rooted conservatism of the moonshiners, as exhibited in this speech, may perhaps partly explain the linguistic confusion into which they have fallen with regard to their public enemy—the informer. This odious creature is known among them as the "reformer," and they are entirely unaware that this is not his usually accepted designation. The malignant tenacity with which he sticks to their trail is accounted for by the fact that "the reformer gits half."

—*Lippincott's* has an article on "Railway Stations," a subject which would bear a good deal of writing, to say nothing of pictorial treatment. The condition of the railway station in any modern and progressive country is, as the writer, Mr. Edward C. Bruce, points out, an indication of the stage which civilization has reached. During the last twenty or twenty-five years some progress has been made in the older parts of the United States in this respect; but we fear that the old-fashioned American station—a source of pain to the eye and weariness to the flesh—is still to be regarded as a type. The unpainted, square wooden shed, with its surrounding platform, the secondary receptacle of so much of the rain and snow which falls upon its shelving roof; the close, setted waiting-room, with its huge, reddening stove, its ragged and uncared-for approaches; its taciturn station-master, who, apparently regarding his duties as a mere voluntary contribution to the solution of the transportation problem, confines them as far as possible to a few brief moments at the periods of the arrival and departure of trains; the ever-recurring gang of village loafers and boys—cannot this sort of country station yet be found without diligent research? Its amelioration depended upon the railroad corporations themselves, and there is no doubt that it is being ameliorated. The Boston & Maine railroad, besides giving its station-masters money for the purchase of seeds and plants for horticultural purposes, gives annual prizes to those whose stations are kept in the best manner. Wherever it becomes for the interest of the company to have its agents live permanently in the stations, the work is of course easier. In the West very few railroads appear to have seen as yet that attractive railroad stations may be counted as among the minor and by no means unimportant attractions to emigrants. The emigrant, though he is frequently treated as if he was little better than a quadruped, is really governed in his migrations by complex considerations, into which a general appearance of neatness and comfort and picturesqueness enter to a

degree greater than many monopolists suppose. There is not much else in the way of prose in *Lippincott's*. Mrs. Howells contributes a pretty little adaptation or imitation of "Abou ben Adhem," which, as Christmas poetry, stands quite alone for its simplicity of sentiment and expression.

—The topics discussed in the *North American* for January are: "The Moral Responsibility of the Insane," by a quintet of medical symposiasts; "The New Political Machine," by William Martin Dickson; "Shall Women Practice Medicine?" by Dr. Mary Putnam Jacobi; "The Geneva Award and the Insurance Companies," by George B. Coale; and "A Chapter of Confederate History," by F. G. Ruffin. We have read with care the articles on insanity, and cannot see that they advance the subject much. Indeed, as to Dr. Elwell and Dr. Beard, however important and weighty their opinions as experts in a given case may be, their facility of literary expression so runs away with them as to make their symposiastic utterances of comparatively little value to any one. "Truth," says Dr. Elwell, "always runs in parallel lines, which crime, in its zigzag course, strikes and crosses at all angles"—a pretty image, but difficult to connect, out of Bedlam, with the following, which is given as its logical consequence: "An act of crime, therefore, while always unnatural, and contrary to ordinary human action, is not necessarily an insane act." What has this to do with the parallels of veracity, or the zig-zags of crime? Again: "No words in our language have yet been able to define 'mind,' sane or insane; and it has no synonym but 'mystery.'" This is not literally true, of course; for if it were we could substitute "mystery" for "mind" wherever it occurs in the symposium, and this would make parts of it more difficult to understand than they are now. Metaphor is the bane of scientific discussion, and accuracy of statement is hardly to be expected from a writer who is so fond of it as Dr. Elwell. Accordingly, when he comes to discuss the legal aspect of insanity, he hazards assertions that will be likely to make the legal reader wish that a lawyer or two had been admitted to this intellectual banquet. The question of insanity, he declares, "may be said to be entirely open to the peculiar views of the presiding judge and the witnesses in each case." Dr. Beard rather funnily begins his symposium as follows: "In traversing a thick forest we are often struck in the face and eyes by a branch which, in passing, we have bent forward, and, smarting with the pain, we automatically and angrily raise our club and strike the branch, as though it were at fault for what has happened." But it is needless to attempt to pursue him in his winding course. There is one radical difficulty with the whole batch of papers: that each writer "sympoizes" (necessity must soon lead to the coining of this verb) by himself, without any apparent effort to follow in the lines suggested by his predecessor. The idea of symposium, and the entertainment of it to a reader, consists in its being a public controversy conducted according to the laws of honorable literary warfare by skilful disputants. The audience is supposed to watch the blows and thrusts and parries with a keen interest, and to amuse itself by seeing which of the combatants comes off with the crown of victory and which is worsted. When the symposium was first imported into this country by the energetic editor of the *North American*, this characteristic feature was consistently preserved, and the engagement of the world-renowned "Jerry" Black and "Bob" Ingersoll seemed likely at one time even to improve the symposium as it has existed in England, and to give it a novel, racy, American flavor which promised to be

very refreshing to the jaded reader of non-illustrated monthlies. Of course there was danger in the symposium, as there must be wherever human passions become excited in controversy; but then there was always the editor at hand to prevent any excesses and to prescribe and enforce the rules of the contest. The wild performances of "Jerry" and "Bob" did undoubtedly bring a momentary discredit upon the symposium; but their misbehavior should not allow the editor to forget that the original function of the symposium must be preserved. The first writer must be replied to by the second, and the second by the third, and so on, so that the whole may be a real discussion, and not mere random disconnected essays. He need not be afraid of a recurrence of the horrid scenes between "Jerry" and "Bob," because there is no other "Jerry" and no other "Bob" in the world. Mr. Dickson's article on "The New Political Machine" is a discussion of civil-service reform which leads to the startling conclusion that no real improvement is possible without rotation in office. Mr. Dickson does not think well of the argument derived from English experience, because "a pyramid whose base is a vast official organization, civil and military, with life-tenure, has naturally the throne as its apex," while "a similar base here, with a President for four years, is a truncated cone." There is more metaphor in the *North American* this month than in any other magazine or review.

—The *Fortnightly* for December opens with an article by D. C. Lathbury on "Atheists in Parliament," apropos of the Bradlaugh case, which will come up anew at the next session, as the action taken by the last Parliament has no binding effect beyond that session. The writer weighs the results of the different courses that may be taken, and thinks that if a bill should be introduced for the relief of atheists, it ought to pass. If Parliament should admit Mr. Bradlaugh without debate, the moral sentiment of the country would be offended. Mr. W. Gifford Palgrave gives an account of Kioto, Japan, and describes, not the ware of the city, but mainly the Shinto religion, which he rates very high, and ascribes to it nearly all the virtues of the Japanese character. He goes so far as to say that "Japanese nationality and Shinto are in truth one thing; born together, they will perish, if perish they must, together; the death-note as the birth-note of Shinto and Japan is one." As nations sometimes change their religion, and considering also the inroads that Buddhism has made upon Japan, this rhetoric seems rather exaggerated, however true the praise of Shinto may be. The author himself says immediately that the wrong done Japan by Chinese Buddhism has not been without some compensating advantages. On the other hand, Shinto is still vigorous: it is a mistake to say that it has been completely superseded by Buddhism. "Thriftless Thrift," by Hugh S. Tremenheare, shows that the Savings-Bank Department of the Post-office has failed to reach the class of poorest depositors by fixing too high the limit of smallest deposit—i. e., at twenty pounds. The limit should be fixed at five pounds, if Government would suppress the numerous burial societies, friendly societies, etc., in which the poor man invests for the sake of obtaining at death a decent burial. These societies are very expensively managed, and are also very unsafe. It is estimated that £36,594,000 were invested in these different institutions in March, 1881. The article illustrates a curious phase of English social life. A. Frishay says Conservatism has increased in the large constituencies since the Reform Bill of 1868, and he fears a continuing increase; but the gain seems to be slight. Dr. William Pole describes the *Bergsturz* (fall of the mountain) at Elm, Swit-

erland, last summer. G. J. Romanes writes a short digest of the 'Origin of Species,' entitled "Scientific Evidence of Organic Evolution," and, with Professor Huxley, puts the case strongly, if not with some heat. The latter says: "Choose your hypothesis; I have chosen mine, and I will not run the risk of insulting any sane man by asking him which he chooses." And Mr. Romanes says he should regard "any man as weak-minded who, after studying the many lines of evidence all converging on the central truth, that evolution has been the law of organic nature, should fail to perceive the certainty of that truth."

— The November number of the Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society contains a short paper by Francis Galton, read before the British Association, "On the Construction of Isochronic Passage-Charts." The accompanying chart is colored variously to designate the length of time required to reach the different parts of the world from London "by the quickest through-routes, and using such further conveyances as are available without unreasonable cost." All of Europe, for instance, the northern coast of Africa, the Levant, the northern half of the Red Sea, Iceland, the east coast of Greenland, Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia, being within ten days' journey, are colored green. A strip of Asia lying between longitude 60° and 75° and including the islands of Spitzbergen and Nova Zembia (or Novaia Zemlia), Asia Minor, parts of Persia and Arabia, the west coast of India, the northwestern coast of Africa, together with a strip adjacent to the Mediterranean and Red Seas, the larger part of the United States, the Dominion and the West Indies, are yellow, to signify that they are from ten to twenty days distant from London. Eastern Arabia, a strip of Asia from Ceylon to the Arctic Ocean, Cape Colony, and portions of the interior and eastern coast of Africa, Western North America, including Behring's Straits and Smith's Sound, Central America, and the northern and eastern coast of South America, are in pink, being from twenty to thirty days' journey. Blue, or thirty to forty days' distance, is to be found on a considerable part of Siberia, the East Indies, the southern coast of China and western of Australia, the northern island of New Zealand, the Guinea coast and a strip nearly surrounding the interior of Africa, a part of British America and the west coast of South America, together with the territory adjacent to the Atlantic coast. The rest of the world is colored brown, as indicating more than forty days' journey, and includes the Chinese Empire, part of Siberia, nearly all Australia, Central Africa, the interior of Greenland, the northern coast of North America, and the interior of South America. The chart has been constructed with great labor from data furnished by the time-tables of the principal ocean steamship companies, information given by the "Postal Guide of the average time taken by the post to reach various places," and records of voyages. Mr. Galton believes that this "new principle" might be adopted in constructing maps for the convenience of travellers. Excursions of five or ten days might be planned by its means with tolerable accuracy and comparatively little trouble. It would be interesting to compare this chart with one prepared in the same manner to show the distance from London of the same places fifty years ago. Nothing would illustrate so vividly and at a glance the progress which has been made in the last half century in bringing men together.

— The Czar Alexander II. and President Garfield furnish the tragical element in the necrology of the year 1881, which in this respect is not likely soon to be equalled. The Imperial idea lost two eminent defenders in Beaconsfield and Drouyn de Lhuys, bosom its inventor, Fer-

nando Wood. The Opposition has "gone over to the majority" in the persons of Emile de Girardin, Friedrich Hecker, Ruffini, Karl Heinzen, and Stephen Foster. Rio Branco, author of the Brazilian Emancipation Act of 1871; Count Giovanni Arrivabene, philanthropist and political economist; and Jules Armand Dufaure, make a small but select class of statesmen by themselves, with whom it is not illogical to connect J. G. Bluntschli and Wm. Beach Lawrence. The greatest name blotted out in literature was Carlyle. But other notable historians, like Duverger de Haaranne, John Hill Burton, and J. G. Palfrey; the great lexicographer Littré; the philologist Benfey; the philosopher Lotze; the poets Dingelstedt, Cossa, and Lanier; James Spedding, the biographer of Bacon; Dean Stanley; Paul de Saint-Victor; William R. Greg; Mrs. S. C. Hall; with the publishers and booksellers Frederic Muller of Amsterdam, Joseph Sabin, and James T. Fields, have left large vacancies in the same ranks. Explorers like Weyprecht and Gessi Pasha; archaeologists like Mariette Pasha, Ferdinand Keller, the pioneer in the Swiss lake-dwelling revelations, Benjamin Filon, Samuel Sharpe, John F. M'Lennan, and Lewis H. Morgan; John Gould, the ornithologist; H. Sainte-Claire Deville, the chemist; Professor George Rolleston, the anthropologist; and F. A. Nobert, the maker of test-plates for microscopes, are some of the losses to science. Art enumerates Hugues Merle, Verboeckhoven, and Gustav Richter, painters; Samuel Palmer, etcher and water-colorist; and George Edmund Street, architect. Add, also, Henri Vieuxtemps, the violinist, and Sothern, the actor. Journalism can point to Francis A. Durivage, Dr. J. G. Holland, and Charles Hudson, the last its historian for this country. From the pulpit we miss Bishop E. O. Haven and Leonard Bacon, and from the professor's chair, J. Lewis Diman; from the list of educators, George B. Emerson. The men of action who went to their repose in 1881 were Admiral La Roncière le Noury; General Von der Tann; Generals Robert C. Patterson, Burnside, Crooke, Upton, and John C. Pemberton, of our civil war; and Colonel Thomas A. Scott, efficient both in peace and in war. Here, too, may be remembered William Ross Wallace, author of "The Sword of Bunker Hill" and of other popular lyrics, and Alfred B. Street, the poet of our lakes, forests, and aborigines. General Jo Lane, Henry Stanbery, and Matthew H. Carpenter stand for distinct phases in our political development.

— In the last two numbers of Prof. Dr. Friedrich Müller's 'Outlines of Linguistic Science,' just published in Vienna, grammatical sketches are given of thirty-eight languages and groups of dialects spoken by American Indians. All the methods and results of modern linguistic science are brought to bear on the subject, and the terms of all the languages have been reduced by the author to one phonetic system—that of Lepsius, also called the standard or the missionary alphabet. In view of the great difficulties to be surmounted, the author of this comprehensive work, which is nearly completed and will then embrace the best-known languages of the globe, has achieved a great advance when compared with the previous linguistic cyclopedias of Balbi and Maury, and with Adelung-Vater's 'Mithridates.' His principal difficulty was the critical examination of many dozens of old grammars, some incomplete, some hardly intelligible, and composed after the most antiquated methods. These old grammars generally pay no attention to one of the main features of a language—we mean, to phonetics. One of the linguistic fields in which Dr. Müller is thoroughly at home is that of the Malay-Melanesian-Polyneian languages, sketched in a previous number

of the 'Outlines.' Here he shows that of the three groups of this family the Malayan, the nearest to the Asiatic continent, is also the most developed group, and has preserved the most ancient grammatical forms. The Eskimo and Aleut languages he unites into one class with four linguistic stocks of northeastern Asia, and calls it that of the "hyperborean races." As to the American languages, Dr. Müller refrains from giving any general characteristics applicable to them all. He is perfectly right in not doing so, for such characteristics do not exist, and it is time to banish the notion from all the books on the subject. Müller concurs with the late Prof. Buschmann's discovery of the affinity of the Shoshoni languages (Uta, Pa-Uta, Comanche, Moqui, Shoshoni proper) with those of the Nahuatl stock spoken in the Mexican States; in fact, those who still doubt this fundamental connection show that they have not read Buschmann, or have failed to understand his researches on the subject. The grammatical terms *animate* and *inanimate*, applied by Müller and others to certain forms of the verb and noun, are strictly applicable to certain American languages only, and by no means to all; in some, for instance, the names of birds and smaller animals follow the inanimate inflection, although they represent animate beings. In rendering a certain sound of the Maskoki dialects and of the Oregonian languages, Müller is wrong in using Pickering's *tł*, for this sound is a linguo-dental, represented as *s* with a point underneath in Lepsius's standard alphabet. Müller's 'Outlines' and L. Adam's 'Sixteen Languages' exhibit the great progress made by Europeans in the study of the American tongues, and no student in the same field can dispense with reading these two representative treatises.

— Although the "arctic wave" predicted for the 28th of December did not make its appearance, the managers of Steinway Hall had made every preparation to receive it. The heat in the hall was so excessive, and so much of it must have been absorbed by the audience, that when they scattered after the concert the radiant heat would have sufficed to warm the whole city even in the midst of an arctic wave. Steinway Hall is a sufficiently aggravating place, owing to the shamefully inadequate "facilities" for exit, and it is not necessary to convert it into a Turkish bath besides. That it was possible, under such depressing circumstances, to give so fine a performance of the "Messiah" as the Oratorio Society, under the direction of Dr. Damrosch, gave, and that the audience had sufficient energy left to indulge in frequent and enthusiastic applause, must be largely ascribed to the esteem in which Handel's popular oratorio is held by the singers and the audience which assembled to hear it, and which, by the way, resembled in physiognomy a congregation much more than an ordinary concert audience. The annual performance of the "Messiah," in truth, must be regarded rather more in the light of a religious ceremony than a concert, so that one might almost question the propriety of criticising the manner in which the work was done. We may briefly say, however, that with the exception of some details, the chorus and orchestra did excellent work, and that the soloists were quite equal to their tasks. Miss Drasidil and Mr. Remmertz are so well known as accomplished oratorio singers that any praise of their voices or methods would be superfluous. Mr. A. L. King, the tenor, displayed a voice of fair quality, but lacking in expression and shading. Miss Hattie Louise Simms seemed a little nervous, which prevented her from doing herself and some of the sustained notes full justice. She has, however, an agreeable, pure, and well-trained voice, and an uncommonly distinct enunciation, which would qualify her for

the assumption of more dramatic rôles than are to be found in Handel's oratorios. Her efforts, like those of the other singers, were rewarded with cordial applause. It was noticeable that many of the seats were vacated before the end of the performance; and this leads us to add a few words regarding the propriety of constantly repeating the "Messiah," a work whose merits are greatly overrated in England and America in comparison with Handel's other oratorios and the incomparably grander works of Bach. There are some admirable arias in the "Messiah" and several superb choruses. But most of the choruses are massive rather than grand, and impose more by their sonority than the impressiveness of their musical ideas. The interminable roulades which adorn the music are, of course, a concession to the taste of the time in which they were written; but to a modern ear they are not only tedious, but often supremely ridiculous, as where, in the chorus "For unto us a child is born," the word born is spread over fifty-seven notes. No wonder that Handel did not succeed in opera and had to turn to oratorio. These remarks are not offered in a frivolous spirit, but from a selfish motive. They are intended as a corrective of the one-sided Handel worship at the expense of greater masters of sacred music. Handel is more superficial and at first sight more melodious than Bach, and hence his greater popularity among English-speaking people. If the "Messiah" in Christmas week is to be regarded as a religious ceremony, sanctioned by custom and popular approval, the Oratorio Society does well to repeat it every year or oftener. But if their work is to be judged from a purely musical point of view, they would deserve more credit for familiarizing the public with some of the glorious choral works of Bach, whose extraordinary wealth of ideas, richness of harmony and modulation, and skilful interweaving of melodious parts are a source of wonder and delight to the select few who have been initiated into their beauties.

#### JOWETT'S THUCYDIDES.—I.

*Thucydides.* Translated into English, with Introduction, Marginal Analysis, Notes, and Indices, by B. Jowett, M.A., Master of Balliol College, Regius Professor of Greek in the University of Oxford, etc. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.

"THUCYDIDES, an Athenian, wrote the War of Peloponnesians and the Athenians, as they warred against each other, beginning to write as soon as the War was on foot, with expectation it should prove a great one, and most worthy the relation of all that had been before it; conjecturing so much both from this, that they flourished on both sides in all manner of provision, and also because he saw the rest of Greece siding with the one or the other Faction; some then presently, and some intending so to do. For this was certainly the greatest Commotion that ever happened amongst the Grecians, reaching also to part of the Barbarians, and, a man may say, to most nations. For the Actions that preceded this, and those again that are yet more ancient, though the truth of them, through length of time, cannot by any means clearly be discovered; yet for any Argument that (looking into Times far past) I have yet light on to persuade me, I do not think they have been very great, either for matter of War or otherwise."

This is the language in which Hobbes translates the first chapter of Thucydides. Place side by side with it the rendering of the same passage by Professor Jowett:

"Thucydides, an Athenian, wrote the history of the war in which the Peloponnesians and the Athenians fought against one another. He began to write when they first took up arms, believing that it would be great and memorable above any previous war. For he argued that both states were then at the full height of their military power, and he saw the rest of the Hellenes either siding or intending to side with one

or other of them. No movement ever stirred Hellas more deeply than this; it was shared by many of the Barbarians, and might be said even to affect the world at large. The character of the events which preceded, whether immediately or in more remote antiquity, owing to the lapse of time, cannot be made out with certainty. But, judging from the evidence which I am able to trust after most careful inquiry, I should imagine that former ages were not great either in their wars or in anything else."

Intelligent readers will find it well worth their while to study with care these two translations of the same original, for such a comparison brings clearly into light a matter which often escapes the attention of critics—namely, that the translator of a classical masterpiece such as the history of Thucydides must of necessity make choice between two ideals of translation: he may, on the one hand, hold that the main object to be attained is such a reproduction of the manner and language of the original author as may give to a person ignorant of Greek the same impression of Thucydides' mode of writing, of his mannerisms—in short, of his style—as is derived by a scholar from reading Thucydides in Greek. This is the object, whether aimed at consciously or not, which is to a singular extent attained by Hobbes. In the very passage quoted it were possible to point out some dubious renderings of the original, but it would be unfair to deny that the stiffness, the intricacy, even a certain confusion of language rather than of thought—for example, in the words "most worthy of relation of all that had been before it"—which perplex and bother the reader of Hobbes's English, are undoubtedly to be found in the Greek of Thucydides, and must assuredly perplex and bother the student who comes to them for the first time.

A translator may, on the other hand, hold that the true end of his work is to reproduce not so much the style as the thoughts and meaning of the original author. On such a view of translation, the end of the English translator of Thucydides is most fully reached when he has put before readers ignorant of Greek a clear, perspicuous, accurate—we may add readable—version of Thucydides such as the Athenian writer might, were he revived to life and endowed with perfect command of the English language, lay before the educated public of England or of America. If this be the true object of translation, Prof. Jowett has as nearly attained it as it can in the nature of things be attained. The passage before us gives every thought which Thucydides wished to put before his contemporaries, and, what is equally important, it does not convey any idea in addition to the thoughts which he intended to express. It further conveys the meaning of the Athenian historian in English as easy to be understood by Englishmen of the nineteenth century as was the Greek of Thucydides by the Athenians of his day. What the English of the Regius Professor of Greek does not exactly reproduce is the effect which the style of the Greek author undoubtedly makes on the mind of Englishmen who have to force out his meaning from the original Greek. We can quite believe that readers acquainted only with Prof. Jowett's version might describe Thucydides as a writer of an easy, flowing, lucid style. It is hard to believe that these terms would be applied to him, say, by students going in for examination at Oxford, and trembling lest they should be "put on" at the account of the Corcyrean Revolution.

We are most anxious to bring out the essential difference between Prof. Jowett's translation and the kind of translation of which Hobbes's work may stand as a type, both because the one apparently-plausible reproach which can be brought against a book which is a specimen of the very highest literary art, is the failure to reproduce

the mannerism of Thucydides, and still more because we are convinced that the imputed defect is, if the true end and aim of translation be considered, one of the greatest merits of a work which one may fairly say is almost above praise. That this is so will, we suspect, be admitted by any one who will candidly consider what are the reasons which make it worth while in modern times for great scholars to consume years of labor in rendering the masterpieces of antiquity into modern English. What justifies, and more than justifies, the toil expended by scholars such as Prof. Jowett and other eminent men on the work of translation, is not the satisfaction given to idle ingenuity by turning the words of one language into the equivalent expressions of another, nor is it in modern times the necessity of making known through vernacular translations the contents of Greek or Latin books. Hundreds of persons can spell out for themselves with the help of a dictionary the sentences of Thucydides; thousands can make themselves acquainted with every fact of the Peloponnesian War by reading Grote or Thirlwall. Scholars might escape from the labors of translation if the only object of their work were to make known facts which are unknown; for any educated person can now, by the purchase of histories, manuals, or abridgments, learn for himself, at no great cost of trouble or expense, all the mere facts of the contest between Athens and Sparta. The justification and reward of scholastic toil in the effort to render ancient classics into English are the immense—the unspeakable—benefit conferred upon the so-called educated classes, of making them really and truly acquainted with the great literary monuments of the ancient world. It is one thing to know about Thucydides; it is quite another thing to know Thucydides himself. Now, if the aim of a translator be to make a classical author as truly accessible to English readers as, say, Carlyle, Gibbon, Motley, or Macaulay, this aim will of necessity regulate his whole conception of the right method of translation. In the case of certain authors, notably of all poets, a translator of genius will feel rather than argue that the reproduction of manner and style must of necessity be a primary consideration. The same remark applies, with certain reservations, to authors like Tacitus, in whose works one must fairly admit manner plays quite as great a part as the substance of their thoughts. A diffuse translation of Tacitus would not be Tacitus at all. In the case, on the other hand, of writers such as Thucydides, whose great thoughts and whose mode of thinking formed the very essence of their work, a translator who understands what he is about will assuredly feel that the first aim of translation is to render the thoughts and meaning of the original author, so that they may both be understood and read by the English public.

Moreover, the translator who makes the rendering of style subordinate to the lucid reproduction of meaning does, in the case of a writer like Thucydides, only sacrifice the letter for the sake of the spirit of accurate reproduction. Thucydides was not a mannerist; there is not the least reason for supposing that he aimed at writing in a way which seems strange, startling, or affected to his readers. In the later periods of Greek literature, as in modern times, the neglect or defiance of the rules of grammar would inevitably be a proof of a writer's deliberate affectation of peculiarity of style. But the apparent grammatical solecisms of Thucydides are not, in any true sense, violations of grammatical rules. A law which does not exist cannot be broken.

"The language of Thucydides presents a curious and interesting problem, because it be-

longs to a period when the uses of words and constructions were not yet fixed, and an original writer had much greater freedom in varying them than was possible in the Alexandrian times.

He who considers that Thucydides was a great genius writing in an ante-grammatical age, when logic was just beginning to be cultivated, who had thoughts far beyond his contemporaries, and who had great difficulty in the arrangement and expression of them, who is anxious but not always able to escape tautology, will not be surprised at his personifications, at his confusion of negatives and affirmatives, of consequence and antecedents, at his imperfect antitheses and involved parentheses, at his employment of the participle to express abstract ideas in the making, at his substitution of one construction for another, at his repetition of a word or unmeaning alteration of it for the sake of variety, at his over-logical form, at his forgetfulness of the beginning of a sentence before he arrives at the end of it. The solecisms or barbarisms of which he is supposed to be guilty are the natural phenomena of a language in a time of transition, and, though not always, as Poppe maintains, common to other Greek writers, yet having some analogy by which they may be defended. They are also to be ascribed to a strong individuality, which subtilizes, which rationalizes, which concentrates, which crowds the use of words, which thinks more than it can express."

The student who ponders upon this admirable description of the style of Thucydides will easily perceive that the pedantic attempt to reproduce all the peculiarities of the manner of Thucydides would have been in effect to sacrifice the substantial truthfulness of translation to the translator's credit for verbal ingenuity. Such a reproduction would have turned a writer who lived at an early stage of literary progress into a writer aiming at the deliberate affectation of style belonging to ages of mature literary development, or rather of impending literary decline.

Nor is a reference to the success of Hobbes in the imitation of the Thucydidean manner any plea for the use in modern times of a similar kind of imitation. Hobbes wrote in an age when English literature itself had not acquired an easy, clear style in the treatment of matters of thought or speculation. His 'History of Thucydides' was not to the readers of 1684 a book as unlike the style of the day as a translation of the like character would be to the readers of 1881. To put the matter plainly, each age must, within certain limits, translate classical writings not only into its own language, but into its own manner. No translation which is unreadable is really a good rendering of an author who has been read by generation after generation, and who will be read as long as the literature of the world endures. To have kept this constantly before his mind is one of the greatest merits of Prof. Jowett as a translator. He has felt that a fine translation of a classical masterpiece must itself be a work of high art, which ought to charm the English public in the same way in which they are charmed by the works of great modern writers. This end his translation achieves. To thousands, not only of those unacquainted with Greek, but of men supposed to have a fair acquaintance with the classical languages, Mr. Jowett has for the first time really opened Thucydides. They can now read and reread the funeral oration of Pericles, or the siege of Syracuse, as they can read Macaulay's description of the siege of Derry, or Carlyle's picture of the death of Louis the Fifteenth. They can now for the first time learn for themselves all that can be learned of the great crisis of Greek history, without the need of imbibing together with the statements of Thucydides the often misleading speculations or misguiding illustrations of even men as eminent as Arnold, Thirlwall, or Grote. Mr. Jowett has brought the educated classes of England and America face to face with the thoughts of the greatest

historical genius of the ancient world. We may say something in another number on the lessons which Englishmen and Americans may learn from their Athenian teacher. It is enough for the moment if we press on every man and woman who, unacquainted with Greek, cares to understand Greek history, the wisdom of profiting to the utmost by the noble present which has been made to the whole English-speaking world by the labor, the learning, and the literary genius of the Regius Professor of Greek.

#### GOTTSCHALK'S TOUR IN THE UNITED STATES.

*Notes of a Pianist.* By Louis Moreau Gottschalk. Preceded by a biographical sketch with contemporaneous criticisms. Edited by his sister Clara Gottschalk. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1881.

HEINE called himself the first poet of the nineteenth century, as having been the first born in it. For a similar reason, Gottschalk assumed the name of the first American pianist. Before him, he says, piano concerts were heard only when a famous artist came from Europe and attracted an audience by the celebrity of his name and the curiosity to see the lion. At the time when he himself first returned from Europe (1853) "the public listened with indifference; to interest it, it became necessary to strike it with astonishment; grand movements, *tours de force*, and noise had alone the privilege in piano music, not of pleasing, but of making it patient with it." But Gottschalk was not the man to be daunted by this state of affairs. He accommodated himself, to a certain extent, to the demands of the public, and if in so doing he partly sacrificed his artistic principles, he deserves credit, on the other hand, for the work of a pioneer who was frequently obliged to toil under circumstances as discouraging as those which beset the early settler, who has to convert a virgin forest into a wheat-field. In playing to an audience of Western roughs he was wise enough to ignore the classics and limit his programme to popular tunes or his own show-pieces, such as his 'Siège de Saragosse,' in which "there is a passage where Gottschalk in a most ingenious manner imitates a military parade, accompanied by the beating of the drum." But that Gottschalk was also capable of rendering compositions of a higher order in an artistic manner will be remembered by many who heard him play in our larger cities, and is also attested by the judgment passed on him by noted critics during his sojourn in France and other foreign countries. Berlioz, in the *Journal des Débats*, called him an accomplished musician, in possession of "all the different elements of the sovereign power of the pianist." "He has a perfect grace in his manner of expressing sweet melodies and of scattering the light passages from the top of the keyboard. As to prestesse, fugue, éclat, brio, originality, his playing strikes from the first, dazles, astonishes; and the infantine simplicity of his smiling caprices, the charming ease with which he renders simple things, seem to belong to a second individuality, distinct from that which characterizes his thundering energies." Escudier, writing of his characteristic compositions, "Le Bananier," "Le Bamboula," "La Savane," and "Ossian," says that Gottschalk resembles no one, and is a pianist who has the prime merit of copying no other composer. Théophile Gautier admires him for the possession of that rare faculty, a distinct individuality, which he traces to the fact that "after having formed his talent by solid studies, he left it to wander carelessly in the fragrant savannas of his country, from which he has brought back to us the colors and perfumes" that equal in charm "the chants of the Muezzin and the

reveries under the palms which Félicien David and Ernest Reyer have noted with their souvenirs of the East."

These criticisms were passed on Gottschalk when, at the age of twenty-two, he gave a series of concerts in France and Switzerland. He was born at New Orleans in 1829, and showed a strong inclination for music at the early age of seven. In 1842 his father sent him to Paris to continue his musical studies. His master in composition was Mr. Maleden, who also numbered Saint-Saëns among his pupils. It is of psychological interest to learn that at this period of his life he had a most remarkable memory for music, which enabled him to recollect hundreds of pages after a few days' study, while in literature, on the contrary, his memory was so defective that he had to invent a system of musical mnemotechny which he applied to history and geography. At the age of sixteen he gave his first public concert in Paris, on which occasion it is said that Chopin, in the artists' room, put his hand on the boy's head and said: "Donnez-moi la main, mon enfant; je vous prédis que vous serez le roi des pianistes." After his successful French and Swiss concerts, Gottschalk made a tour through Spain, where his reception was at first somewhat cool because the Queen was reported to have said that she would never patronize an American artist; on which account the nobility were reserved toward him. Soon, however, the tide turned, and the pianist was invited to play before the King and his family at a private soirée. The extraordinary favors shown him on this occasion excited the envy and hatred of the court pianist, who on a subsequent occasion endeavored to avenge himself by slamming a carriage door on his rival's fingers. The pain was so severe that Gottschalk fainted, and amputation of his little finger was at first considered necessary. Fortunately he objected to this, and the finger, recovering, subsequently became more powerful than it had been. After leaving Madrid, he visited other Spanish cities, where his triumphs were not diminished by the fact that the Queen had written to the authorities that he should be received with the greatest distinction. His glory culminated in the receipt of a letter, accompanied by a magnificent sword, from the famous bull-fighter Don José Redendo, in return for an invitation to one of his concerts.

After reaching this sublime height of terrestrial glory an ordinary mortal would have rested on his laurels. Not so Gottschalk. Early in 1853 he left Europe for America, which at that period was anything but a paradise for musicians, in spite of the extraordinary success of a few favored artists. His experiences in this country, from New York to San Francisco and from Panama to Rio Janeiro, where he died in 1869, are contained in the 'Notes' now under consideration. They cover a period of fifteen years, those relating to the years 1862-1868 being in the form of a diary. The letters written to his family, which will probably be published at some future day, will supply the lacuna found in the last year of his life. Miss Gottschalk declares that although numerous letters have been addressed to Gottschalk's friends in Rio, to his physician and his landlord, his family up to the present day know absolutely nothing about his last moments nor about the true cause of his death, although it is known that he had an attack of yellow fever four months before his death. Great trouble was also experienced in securing possession of his personal effects, his manuscripts and literary remains. After four years' delay, the trunk containing them was at last secured, but the papers it contained were so soiled and torn that Miss Gottschalk at first despaired of being able to arrange them and carry out her brother's "cherished

scheme of publishing his travels." It is fortunate that she rallied from her despair, for otherwise we should have been deprived of a book which is not only of interest on account of its simple but vivid descriptions of events in various countries, and its revelations of the tastes and characteristics of an original musician, but which will some day be of inestimable value as showing more clearly perhaps than any other record the attitude of various rude and semi-civilized communities toward music and virtuosity.

A desire for literary fame was not the only motive which induced Gottschalk to fix his impressions on paper. The horrible monotony of concerts, as he calls it, the invariable repetition of the same pieces, the daily round of railroad cars, isolation in the midst of the crowd, forced him, in order to avoid becoming brutalized and being converted into an automaton, to adopt the habit of making of his note-book a sort of mute confidant to whom he could entrust all his joys and sorrows. How much he needed such a confidant becomes apparent when we read of the reception accorded him in some of our extreme Western towns, which contrasted so vividly with his European experiences. The newspapers seemed to oppose his "invasions" frequently, and recommended only the patronizing of local concerts, "because the money then does not leave the locality." Being ill on one occasion for three days in a town in Nevada, and finding himself completely isolated and deserted, he gives vent to his feelings in these words:

"I defy your finding in the whole of Europe a village where an artist of reputation would find himself as isolated as I have been here. If, in place of playing the piano, of having composed two or three hundred pieces, of having given seven or eight thousand concerts, of having given to the poor one hundred or one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, of having been knighted twice, I had sold successfully for ten years quarters of salted hog, . . . my poor, isolated chamber would have been invaded by adorers and admirers."

He explains the worship of wealth in this country as due to a sort of gratitude to any man who has fixed in the country the capital which augments its prosperity. Even in San Francisco, the newspaper editors seemed to him ignorant of the elementary laws of politeness, inasmuch as of all whom he had invited to a supper at his hotel, after having paid them a personal visit, only two came, the others not even sending a note of excuse. The fact that at that period only the circus flourished in San Francisco, while concerts never succeeded—Ole Bull, Strakosch, and others having "left in confusion"—leads him to make some admirable remarks on the attitude of primitive communities toward his art:

"Music, of all the arts, is the last to implant itself, and only takes deep root in old civilized societies. It is too abstract, it appertains too much to the domain of thought and feeling, to flourish where the physical forces are in full activity. It is an art for idlers and dreamers. Neither the one nor the other is found among men who have to build houses to shelter themselves and who have to seek their food. The plastic arts are the first, after spoken poetry, which suggest themselves to the minds of primitive peoples."

It must not be inferred from this that Gottschalk's efforts were always and invariably unappreciated in the great West. On his departure from California, the admiration of his friends found expression in a fine gold medal with his initials set in diamonds, and other signs of appreciation were not wanting. In most of the smaller towns, however, he could not conceal from himself the fact that the usual audiences of one hundred or one hundred and fifty who paid their dollar, not knowing exactly what sort of a "show" or "panorama" they were going to see,

were generally disappointed, and vowed to wreak their vengeance by ignoring the next pianist who might come along. Still, he could not help "remarking the propriety of conduct of these audiences, who, however wearisome our music must appear to them, submit to it without protest." Perhaps the majority of those who listened to him were as ignorant of music as the Indian of whom he tells an amusing story on page 369. This Indian had heard Gottschalk play "Hail, Columbia," and after he had left the room, examined the piano, which, to his astonishment, responded to his own touch. When Gottschalk returned he sat down at the piano, and with all the force of his arms began to beat the keys, calling out triumphantly, "You see, I never tried before, and I make more noise than he." At Zanesville he was greatly annoyed on one occasion by a charming young girl and her mamma, who occupied a front seat and passed the whole of the concert in watching his feet. Being ignorant of the use of the pedals, they apparently saw in his movements only a kind of queer trembling and odd and rudimentary steps in dancing which afforded them an inexhaustible source of amusement. We might cite many more of these characteristic anecdotes, but those here given will suffice to show that the 'Notes of a Pianist' contains much that is amusing as well as instructive. Gottschalk was able to converse fluently in five or six languages, but his notes and letters were written in French, the present volume being a translation by R. E. Peterson. His style is occasionally unpolished, but in general it has the merits of simplicity and directness. His descriptions betray close observation and an eye for the picturesque, while a poetic vein is revealed by such lines as these written near Dayton, Nevada:

"The mountains are brought so near that, seen from the height where we are, through this blue vapor, they seem to be the waves of an ocean which, by a magical effect, have become petrified in the midst of a tempest. The breeze, which blows softly, brings to us the thousand distant sounds from the deep valleys and high peaks. A bird, concealed at the bottom of the precipice, gives forth its monotonous song, composed of three notes, which it repeats without interruption."

#### LALOR'S ENCYCLOPEDIA OF POLITICAL SCIENCE.

*Encyclopædia of Political Science, Political Economy, and of the Political History of the United States.* Edited by John J. Lalor. Vol. I. A-Dut. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.

THE editor of this work is known to the public as the translator of Von Holst's 'Political History of the United States' and of Roscher's 'Political Economy.' In the pursuit of his vocation as the introducer of important works in a foreign language to the English-speaking public he appears to have conceived the idea of compiling a cyclopedia of political science from the 'Staatswörterbuch' of Bluntschli and Brater, and the 'Dictionnaire Général de la Politique' of Maurice Block. This would have been a welcome addition to our storehouse of ready reference, seeing that we have no work in English corresponding to these except one volume of an unfinished 'Dictionary of Political Economy,' by H. D. Macleod. If this was Mr. Lalor's first intention, he has improved upon it by adding a large number of original articles by American, English, and Canadian writers, and by extending the scope of the work so as to include American political history within its range.

The body or groundwork of the first volume consists of articles translated from the two foreign works already mentioned, and from the

'Dictionnaire de l'Économie Politique' of Guillaumin and Coquelin. The original work embraces a large number of articles on American political history, by one writer (Mr. Alexander Johnston of Norwalk, Conn.), and articles on legal, political, economic, statistical, social, and administrative topics by persons of distinction or of special training. The high excellence and value of the works of Bluntschli and Block are so widely recognized as not to call for fresh commendation, and it only needs to be said that Mr. Lalor has made very judicious selections for the purpose of translation. The original matter is for the most part of equally high merit. It is not too much to say that the American contributors suffer nothing by comparison with the foreign writers whose articles are placed in juxtaposition with them. It will occur to the student that a much larger proportion of the work might have been equally well done at home, and that the whole would have been fresher and more entertaining in consequence. Nevertheless, we cannot withhold our warm commendation for the industry and discrimination of the editor and the enterprise of the publishers. The cyclopedia of which they have given us the first volume is a timely and valuable aid to political education. As a work of reference upon the subjects of which it treats it will prove especially serviceable to students, editors, and public speakers.

For the purpose of indicating the range of subjects treated, we shall confine ourselves to the original articles. Mr. Johnston, to whom has been confided the treatment of American political history, furnishes the articles on Abolitionists, Alabama Claims, Alien and Sedition Laws, American Party, Annexations, Bank Controversy, Compromises, Confederate States, Peace Conference, Constitution, Hartford Convention, Democratic-Republican Party, and Dred Scott Case, besides a large number of brief biographical notices of American statesmen. These, by the way, are so limited in the information which they contain that they might as well have been omitted altogether. A cyclopedia of political science need not be at the same time a biographical dictionary, but, if it essayed that rôle, ought to furnish something more than the dates of birth, accession to office, and death or retirement of the persons whose names are introduced. Mr. David A. Wells furnishes two articles in his best style, one on the American Merchant Marine, and the other on Distilled Spirits as Subjects of Taxation. Mr. John Jay Knox, the Comptroller of the Currency, presents the subject of Banking in the United States with a thoroughness which leaves nothing to be desired. The subject of Banks and Banking is treated at great length by no less than seven writers. Mr. Edward Atkinson deals with the general functions of banks; Mr. John P. Townsend gives a history of the rise and growth of savings banks, with a considerable treatise on the principles of their administration, and Professor E. J. James, of Normal University, Ill., discusses banks of issue, his article being essentially an abridgment of the one in Bluntschli on that subject, with applications to the practice and requirements of the United States. It is worthy of notice that the writer gives his judgment in favor of the "banking principle," as applied to circulating notes, as distinguished from the "currency principle," upon which the Bank of England notes are based. The banking principle looks to bank capital and good business methods for the security and usefulness of circulating notes, while the currency principle looks to Government security. The discussion of this subject in Mr. James's article is very thorough. The subject of Bankruptcy is well presented by Judge Lowell, of Massachusetts. Judge Cooley, of Michigan, furnishes articles

on the Bar and the Law of Corporations, and Mr. E. S. Isham has a paper on Corporations as Economic Forces. Judge Jameson, of Illinois, whose work on the Constitutional Convention is well known, writes an article on that subject. Mr. Dorman B. Eaton contributes articles on Civil-Service Reform, Civil Administration, and Confirmation by the Senate; Mr. F. W. Whitridge writes upon Political Assessments and the Caucus System, and Mr. Simon Sterne on Administration of American Cities. Professor Cliffe Leslie furnishes two interesting articles, one on Cost of Production and the other on Definitions in Political Economy; Mr. Horace White discusses Commercial Crises; Mr. Horatio Burrough, Coinage; Mr. H. D. Lloyd, the Clearing-House System; and Mr. Robert P. Porter, the subject of Public Debts. Mr. A. R. Spofford, the Librarian of Congress, furnishes articles on Academies, Budget, and Congress. The subject of Blockade is discussed by Professor Woolsey. Chinese Immigration is treated by Mr. Henry George in a moderate tone, from the standpoint of a Californian, and China itself is presented at considerable length by Professor W. E. Griffis, who also has an article on Corea. Original articles, moreover, are furnished on Aliens, Apportionment, Bill of Rights, Court Martial, Dominion of Canada, and a number of minor topics.

While the selection of subjects is generally well conceived, we find a few articles (some translated from foreign works) which are not worth the small space they fill, such as Abstention, Abuses in Politics, Acclamation, Barricade, Copperhead, Corporal's Guard. It is also a defect of the work that topics of foreign history are not always brought down to the present time. The article on Bolivia, for instance, does not mention the recent war with Chili, and the article on Chili merely mentions the war, but does not tell us what were its causes. The editor has probably labored under some disadvantages through insufficient personal acquaintance with professional men in the East, for although the major part of the original writing is furnished from this meridian, there still remains a large body of political science to draw from, which we shall hope to see represented in the two succeeding volumes. It would be wiser for the editor, and more remunerative to the publishers in the end, to make up the remaining volumes of original matter entirely, for which there is abundance of material within their reach.

#### RECENT NOVELS.

*Dr. Breen's Practice.* A Novel. By William D. Howells. Boston: James R. Osgood & Company. 1881.

*The Giant Raft.* Part 1. Eight Hundred Leagues on the Amazon. By Jules Verne. Translated by W. J. Gordon. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.

*A Laodicean; or, The Castle of the De Stancy.* A Tale of To-day. By Thomas Hardy. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Bros. Also, Henry Holt & Co.

*Kith and Kin.* By Jessie Fothergill. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

*Severa.* From the German of E. Hartner. Translated by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

'DR. BREEN'S PRACTICE' is a novel of New England life, in which Mr. Howells shows his usual skill and humor, and more than an ordinary amount of ingenuity as well. The plot is founded on an idea which has, so far as we know, not been utilized in fiction before. Dr. Grace Breen is a young New England girl, who represents what Mr. Howells seems to consider the modern form of Puritanism, this ancient faith taking in

her a moral rather than a religious form, and making her conscience sensitive as regards all her relations with her fellow-creatures to a degree unknown in parts of the world unaffected by Puritan traditions. The scene of the story is laid in a seaside "resort" known as "Jocelyn's," where may be found the usual New England summer boarding-house, with its visitors from all quarters. Grace Breen having had some years before an unfortunate love affair, in which she had been badly treated by her lover, has adopted the practice of medicine, much as other women enter convents or go out as missionaries—though Mr. Howells intimates that this is putting the case in rather an exaggerated way; but at any rate, she has chosen this work with the intention of giving her life to it and supporting herself by it. Its study has cost her sensitive nerves a good deal of suffering, and many of its details are almost insuperably repugnant to her. She has studied medicine in New York, and appears at the opening of the novel as a graduate of a homeopathic medical college. It should be stated, however, that this unfeminine professional self-devotion has been far from unsexing the devotee, who is, notwithstanding her occupation, simply a charming girl, by no means disqualified by her first love affair from having a second one. With her, at "Jocelyn's," is also staying Mrs. George Maynard, a Western woman, who had been befriended at school by Grace, and whose relations with her husband are, at the opening of the story, involved in some mystery. According to her own account, she has been so ill-treated by him that a divorce is absolutely necessary, and perhaps independently of this she looks upon divorce rather more in the light of a natural consequence of marriage than her friend Grace does.

Mr. Maynard is on a ranch in Wyoming, and matters being in this situation, there appears at "Jocelyn's" a young friend of both husband and wife, a Mr. Walter Libby, who immediately falls in love with Grace, while Grace imagines him to be desirous of setting on foot a flirtation with Mrs. Maynard. Libby proposes a sail to Mrs. Maynard, chiefly for the purpose of getting Grace to go also, she neither wishing to go herself nor to have her friend go. Her unwillingness to consent to the expedition leads her to tell the young man that Mrs. Maynard, who is an invalid and who has put herself under Grace's care, ought not to go, because the sea air will do her no good. This subterfuge she does not resort to without a twinge of her Puritan conscience. Libby, who is far more anxious to please her than to take his friend's wife out at all, immediately goes off and returns with the suggestion that his skipper thinks that the wind may become pretty fresh before they get back. Grace, perceiving the drift of this, and refusing to take part in the prevention of the scheme, now insists that Mrs. Maynard shall sail, and that she will take the risk of any harm from bad weather. It will be seen from this that the extraordinary delicacy of her conscience is somewhat tinged with the peculiarities of her sex, and that it is distinctly an illogical conscience. The wind, singularly enough, does become pretty fresh. Mrs. Maynard and Libby are wrecked and Mrs. Maynard barely rescued from drowning.

This result of Grace's insisting upon the sail makes her peculiarly contrite and self-reproachful, and the bitterness of her remorse is increased by the fact that Mrs. Maynard becomes more and more ill. The confidence which the invalid felt in her woman physician so long as her ailments were trifling disappears when they become serious, and Dr. Breen begins to feel that although she is competent to treat the case, the patient herself has not sufficient trust in her to make it advisable that she should continue alone in it. Mrs. Maynard, in fact, strongly intimates

the feeling which most women have about doctors of their own sex, and this of course causes new and more serious twinges of conscience in Grace's tender heart. She finally determines that she will call in a certain Dr. Mulbridge from a neighboring town for a consultation. Dr. Mulbridge represents that peculiar New England type—a well-educated but rough and uncoated village physician, cynical with a sordid cynicism hardly known out of New England, practical, intelligent, ambitious, and selfish. He is a man of great force of will, and no sooner sees Grace Breen than he determines to make her his wife. Their first interview, however, is of a professional character, for learning that she represents the homeopathic schism, he informs her that as a regular practitioner he cannot possibly consult with her. As a physician, it is somewhat surprising that the heroine should not have known this in advance, but she did not, and his refusal is one humiliation the more. The necessity of some other physician being called in determines her in the end to turn over Mrs. Maynard to Dr. Mulbridge and to sink herself to the humble level of nurse. In the end, after first rejecting Libby she accepts him, or rather she makes him come back by a very distinct avowal of the fact that she had mistaken her feeling for him, while Dr. Mulbridge, who proposes marriage to her about the same time, is sent about his business; and the reader feels that he ought to be. George Maynard is summoned back from the West and becomes reconciled to his wife, whose illness effects a change in her character for the better. Grace at length marries Libby, and finds a field for self-sacrifice and altruistic efforts in the care of the children among her husband's operatives.

Jules Verne, to judge from his present story, has exhausted his resources in the way of fiction, and fallen back on geography and natural history. He has shown a tendency in this direction for some time, but in none of his previous books has so large a proportion of space been occupied by description and information of an encyclopedic kind. The story contained in the 'Giant Raft' is extremely slight. Torres, an adventurer and a bad man, has come into possession in some way of papers very damaging to the reputation of one Joam Jarral, a good man. The papers, in fact, contain conclusive proof of the commission by him of a murder, of which in reality he is entirely innocent. Torres tracks him down for the purpose of making what he can out of his proofs, and when the critical moment arrives insists on Jarral's giving his daughter in marriage in return for his silence. This daughter is engaged to be married to the hero of the tale, and the whole party are going down the Amazon on a raft built by Jarral. The object of the voyage is that the marriage of the daughter and her lover may come off as soon as possible, and the first part of the story closes with the arrest of the innocent Jarral, at the instigation of Torres, the one person who is able to prove his innocence of the charge having just died of apoplexy. It is impossible, even with the most grateful recollection of the amusement derived from Jules Verne's earlier stories, to say that the 'Giant Raft' will be found entertaining. If all the facts contained in it with regard to the flora and fauna of the valley of the Amazon, its physical conformation, and the customs of its inhabitants are true, the book might be used for purposes of reference or as a travellers' guide; but we believe M. Jules Verne has never cultivated that accuracy in matters of science which would tend to make his novels works of authority, and we can only regret his apparent involuntary lapse from his real vocation as a writer of ingenious if improbable fiction.

Mr. Hardy's novel opens with a curious scene

in a Baptist chapel in an English village, of which George Somerset, a young architect, is an accidental witness. On a platform at the end of the chapel an ascetic-looking middle-aged minister stands reading a chapter. Between the minister and the congregation, assembled evidently for some other than ordinary purpose, is an open space in the floor in which is sunk a tank full of water, reflecting the lights (for it is evening) overhead. The people, quietly seated, are evidently waiting for some event to take place. A brougham drives up to the side door, and a lady in half mourning alights, followed by a companion carrying wraps. They enter the vestry room of the chapel, and the door is shut. The service goes on until at a certain moment the door between the vestry and the chapel is opened, and the lady of the brougham comes out clothed in baptismal robes of white. Somerset cannot see her face, but observes she is rather tall than otherwise, and is a girl in the heyday of youth and beauty. She stands upon the brink of the pool and the minister descends the steps at its edge. The candidate for ecclesiastical honors, however, does not follow him; instead of doing so she remains at the brink. He stretches out his hand, but still she shows reluctance, till finally, in a voice audible to all near by, he says, "You will descend?" She approaches the edge, looks into the water, but gently turns away. Somerset then for the first time sees her face, which, like most heroines' faces in modern novels, is described as being, though imperfect, very attractive. It is one which makes the spectator think "that the best in womankind no less than the best in psalm tunes had gone over to the Dissenters." She does not, however, look like a Dissenter, for there is something in her face suggesting that she has had experience of things far outside the circumscribed horizon of dissent. In fact, she might be a thoroughly secular girl, accidentally placed in entirely uncongenial religious surroundings. She has, it seems, agreed to be baptized according to the forms of the church, at her father's dying request, but at the last moment she repents, and, notwithstanding the expostulations of the minister, declines to comply. The minister turns to the congregation, and declares that the baptism is postponed, upon which she withdraws from the church. The lady is Miss Paula Power, daughter of the great railroad contractor of that name, and inheritor of the castle of the De Stancys, around which Mr. Hardy's tale centres.

Mr. Hardy is an ingenious novelist, and by this opening scene, and by applying the term "Laodicean" to his heroine, he has managed to convey to the mind of the reader a subtle doubt with regard to her character which pervades the book almost to the end. Somerset falls in love with her and in the end marries her, but the obstacles thrown in the way of this termination are very numerous. The ancient house of De Stancy is represented by Sir William De Stancy, his daughter Charlotte, who is the intimate friend of the heroine, and his son, Captain De Stancy. Miss Power has unlimited wealth, and an aesthetic taste which her Baptist surroundings have never yet permitted her to gratify. She determines to restore Stancy Castle, and, forming the acquaintance of Somerset, wishes to make him her architect. There is, however, another professional gentleman in the field named Havill, a man of inferior education and taste, but who has stood in confidential relations with Miss Power's father. Out of a feeling of professional delicacy, Somerset suggests that Havill and himself shall compete for the work; that both shall draw designs for the restoration, which shall be submitted to some competent authority, and that the successful competitor shall carry off the prize. To this Miss Power consents, but meanwhile Somer-

set is installed at the castle for the purpose of making drawings and studies. The villain of the piece, a young man named Dare, now appears on the scene, and for purposes of his own enters into an unholy alliance with Havill in order to beat Somerset in the competition. With this end in view, Dare surreptitiously makes copies of Somerset's sketches, and the result of this is that both plans are pronounced equal in merit. Miss Power of course, under these circumstances, selects Somerset as her architect.

Meanwhile the plot thickens; for it appears that Dare is the illegitimate son of Captain De Stancy, and has formed the design of arranging a marriage between his father and Miss Power, his father being an extremely susceptible person who has only to be exposed to the influence of female beauty to lose his heart and head. The wicked Dare induces the Captain, a weak, amiable man, completely in his son's power, to make a critical examination of Miss Power through an opening of the wall of a gymnasium, where she is in the habit of indulging in somewhat picturesque athletic exercises. There is every reason in the world for regarding an alliance between the fallen De Stancys and the heiress of the deceased contractor as an excellent match, and there is something in the idea which is agreeable to Miss Power herself, as her lack of family rather rankles in her mind. To carry out his design Dare sets on foot all sorts of machinations against Somerset, and succeeds with devilish ingenuity in making Miss Power believe that he is not only a gambler and a drunkard, but that he has gone to the length of having a photograph taken representing him in a disgusting state of intoxication, the fact being that Dare, understanding the secrets of photography, has made a caricature photograph of the unfortunate man for the purpose of furthering his dastardly plot. Disgusted with her lover, Miss Power (who does not at all dislike De Stancy) agrees to marry him, and the day is fixed for the wedding. The marriage does not come off, however, for on the day appointed for it Dare's depravity comes to Miss Power's knowledge, and while in the very act of preparing for the ceremony she learns that she has been grossly deceived. Not knowing the relation between Dare and De Stancy, she insists on the former's immediate arrest, upon which De Stancy, to save his son, is obliged to confess the relationship between them. The marriage is broken off. Miss Power's feeling for Somerset has now reached a point far removed from the Laodicean mean of lukewarmness, and she determines to right the wrong she has done by hunting him up and confessing her error. Her pursuit of him is attended with some difficulties, but reconciliation, it is hardly necessary to say, is in the end complete. At the last moment, the old castle, which has been the scene of much of the story, and has seemed to exist as a sort of gloomy fate overhanging the fortunes of the lovers, is burned to the ground by the incendiary hand of Dare, leaving Somerset and his wife to begin their new life freed from the mouldy associations of the past.

Jessie Fothergill has tried a higher flight in "Kith and Kin" than in any of her previous works. The duty of filial devotion, and the merit of total self-sacrifice to save a mother's honor, form a noble subject; but to work it out adequately requires a larger knowledge of the world, a clearer judgment of the value of motives and results than the author possesses. So that the total effect of the book is something like that of a grand theme in music rendered by thin voices. Judith Conisbrough refuses the reparation which her cousin Bernard Aglionby is eager to make to her family for the loss of the fortune which they have expected from their

grandfather. She refuses because she knows that the will was an old man's tardy repentance for neglect of Bernard, the only son of his only son, disinherited but afterward bitterly mourned. She believes, too, that her mother had prevented a reconciliation with the young widow, Bernard's mother, by a double and deliberate deception. So Judith bears poverty, everything, rather than receive one penny from her cousin, and later refuses his love, as does her sister that of her suitor, lest they shall expose their mother's sin or bring the disgrace of it upon the men they love. Years pass, till just before death, already warned of fatal malady, the mother confesses to Bernard her falsehood, but excuses herself as deceived and angered by the old man himself. The confession sweeps away all obstacles, and the book closes with the happiness of all the four. But such a conclusion presents difficulties. If Mrs. Conisbrough's course of action, after all, was not dishonorable, then the long misery endured by the daughters was futile. Their scruples about marriage were only overwrought sensitiveness. It might be said they did not know the whole story. So much the more, then, should they have shown their loyalty to their mother by believing in her, not by doubting her, and the reader still feels his sympathy wasted. On the other hand, if the sin were indeed so dreadful, so shameful, as the daughters' agony would make it appear, what manner of men are these who pass it over so lightly? There is another discrepancy between conception and execution in the plot within the plot—the story of Bernard's first love. His faithfulness to Lizzie Vane, to whom he had been betrothed in his earlier humble life as a city clerk, until her preference is shown for a man more her equal, is well given. But Lizzie Vane herself, who is meant to be very pretty and only very silly, is made so vulgarly inane that the mere sight of her lowers one's respect for Bernard. Too often the portraiture of character is marred by a pettiness of spirit in details or comparisons. Bernard's first sight of his inheritance, his first sense of possession, is strangely belittled: "The view before him struck with a strange thrill upon him—a thrill half pleasure, half pain. . . . To him it was more—it was a revelation. . . . It was as wonderful to him, and certainly quite as agreeable, as her first ball to a girl of seventeen who has been brought up in strict seclusion."

"Severa" is a new though not very original version of the old story of the guardian who marries his ward. This time she is the daughter of his first love, who deserted him for an actor. There is a very beautiful young widow who would work mischief if she could. But why are such women made such obvious schemers? It is too much to expect admiration for a hero who can be even for a day the victim of such transparent wiles. The merit of Mrs. Wister's translations is so well known that it is a surprise to find such mistakes as the, "enormity" of a debt; "defiant" for mistrustful. "One fell in the fight for freedom," means anywhere and any time, whereas the "War of Deliverance" is as definitely accepted a phrase in English for the struggle against Napoleon in 1813-15, as "Freiheitskampf" is in German.

*An Essay on the History of English Church Architecture, prior to the Separation of England from the Roman Obedience.* By George Gilbert Scott, F. S. A. With numerous illustrations. New York: Scribner & Welford. • 1881.

THIS important and scholarly work, by a son of the late Sir Gilbert Scott, is an attempt to show how the Christian architecture of England, from

the earliest times to the end of the fifteenth century, is a continuous and orderly evolution, having its spirit in the history of Christianity itself, and its form in the internal and external conditions of society. The author treats the subject as an essential part of the great fact of Christianity, and, unlike other historians in this branch of inquiry, is not content to begin his story abruptly with the Saxon Domination, but shows the natural effect of traditions from the earliest forms of the Church in Asia Minor and ancient Rome. These relations are traced with curious and patient research, and the later and more glorious developments of the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries are illustrated with an animation of description, a boldness and ingenuity of speculation, and a fertility of knowledge rare to meet with in works of this character. Much of the book necessarily traverses well-worn paths; but no student, however versed in the literature of the subject, can fail to notice in the presentation even of the most familiar facts a freshness of method at once interesting and instructive. The discursus upon ecclesiology and its effect upon the distribution of churches is perhaps the most valuable part of the book. On the whole, we commend it as the most noticeable contribution yet made by an

Englishman to this important branch of archaeology. The style of it is lucid, and not without good literary form; but even in this brief notice we cannot avoid condemning the singular affectation of Gallicism in the use of small initial letters in such phrases, as "the irish churches," "the saxon period," "the roman domination," etc.

*My Boy and I; or, On the Road to Slumberland.* By Mary D. Brine. New York: George W. Harlan. 1881.

The incongruities of this volume are too annoying to be passed by without a word. A number of poems, all on the fertile theme of a mother's love for her baby boy, have been printed in sepia with black-letter type, on loose leaves of tinted paper. Several pages of "process" reproductions of curiously chaotic inscriptions and sketches, mingling carelessly imitated antique letters with fragments from a sketch-book and a tangle of Blake-like lines, have been sandwiched between these poems. The whole, not forgetting a song with music, has been bound to its flexible covers of Russia leather by hanks of floss silk. The studied rudeness of the exterior decoration, combining the ecclesiastical and the Japanese; the obtrusiveness of the quaintly

accidental and the weird element in the illustrations; the discord between type and text; the lavish luxury of material and workmanship, prove that the intention of the volume is to cater to a hyperesthetic taste which demands novelty with dyspeptic impatience. Whatever merit there may be in the poems is swamped by the unsympathetic medium through which they are presented to the reader. The book will have success as a seasonable novelty. As an artistic production it is not likely to add to the reputation of Louis C. Tiffany & Company, Associated Artists, who are responsible for its arrangement.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bainbridge, W. F. *Around the World Tour of Christian Missions.* Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. \$2.  
Bainbridge, Lucy S. *Round the World Letters.* Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.  
Eaton, D. R. *Civil Service in Great Britain.* Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.  
Gebhardt, O. von. *Novum Testamentum: grecce recentioris Tischendorfiana ultima textum.* New York: B. W. Tauchnitz & Co.  
Hoyt, J. T. *Mechanics' Liens: How Acquired and Enforced.* New York: P. F. McLean.  
Hoyt, J. E., and Ward, Anna L. *The Cyclopedic of Practical Annotations.* New York: I. K. Funk & Co.  
Lippincott's Magazine, vol. xxviii., 1881. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$2.  
Nimmo, J., Jr. *Report on the Internal Commerce of the United States.* Submitted July 1, 1881. Washington: Government Printing Office.  
Nisbet, E. *The Science of the Day and Genesis.* New York: W. B. Smith & Co.

#### Greece and Rome.

Their Life and Art. By Jacob Von Falke, Director of the Imperial Museum of Berlin. 4to, superbly illustrated, \$15.

#### Young Folks' History of the War for the Union.

By John Chapman, Jr., editor of "The Young Folks' Cyclopaedia." 8vo, copiously illustrated, \$2.75.

#### The Summer School of Philosophy at Mount Lebanon.

Twenty-four Pen-and-ink Drawings. A. Mitchell. 4to, \$3.50.

#### Symonds's Renaissance in Italy.

Part I. *THE AGE OF THE DESPOTS.* 8vo, \$3.50.

Part II. *THE REVIVAL OF LEARNING.* 8vo, \$3.50.

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